

# 5. Tissue Optics

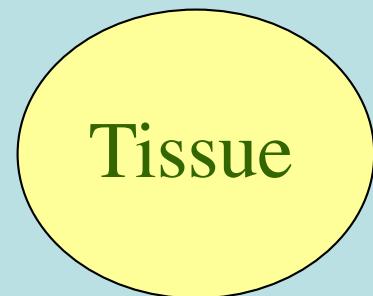
- 5.1. **Tissue optical parameters**
- 5.2. The radiative transport equation (RTE)
- 5.3. Approximations of the RTE
- 5.4. Measurement methods

# What is Tissue Optics ?

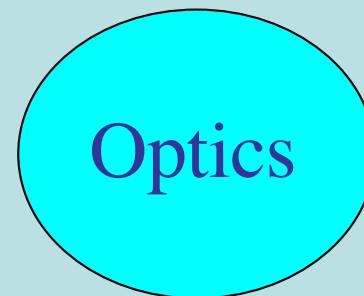
## Definitions from dictionary

- **Optics:** a science that deals with
  - genesis and propagation of light
  - changes that it undergoes and produces
- **Tissue:** an aggregate of cells
  - usually of a particular kind together with their intercellular substance that form one of the structural materials of a plant or an animal

# What is Tissue Optics ?



+



= Tissue Optics

Subject of Interest

Investigating Principle

We are interested in ...

- Constituents of Tissue
- Propagation of Light
- Interaction between Light and Tissue
- Diagnostic and Therapeutic Implications

# Is Tissue Optics Special ?

Many similarities with the propagation of light through the atmosphere !



## Three Major Components

- Optical Source – Sun
- Medium - Atmosphere
- Detector – Human Eyes

## Interaction between light and particles in atmosphere

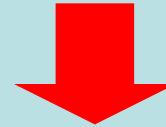
- Absorption
- Scattering (Rayleigh & Mie)

# Objectives of Tissue Optics

## Key Question:

How many photons per second will reach the tissue chromophore and be absorbed?

**Absorption process is important**  
**because it transfers energy to tissue**



1. To find the light energy per unit area per unit time that reaches a target chromophore at some position
2. To develop tissue characterization methods based on the absorption and scattering properties

# Interest of detecting optical signals from tissues

- Large number of Biological Molecules can be characterized with light.  
→ **Functional** and **Structural** information



# Ultimate Goal of Tissue Optics

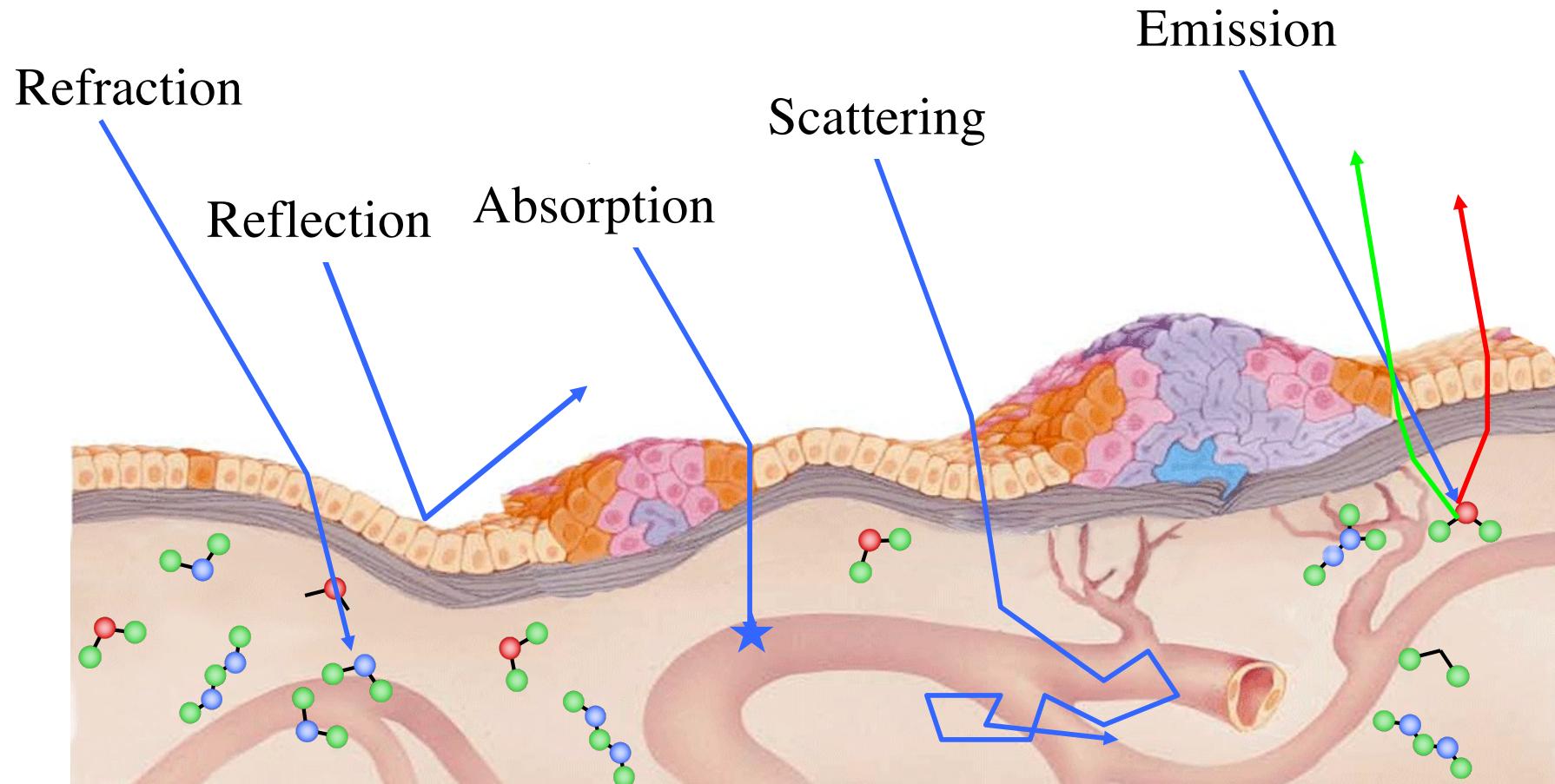
Assess all optical properties  
**non-invasively in living tissue (in vivo)**

## Difficulties

- Tissue is a complicated heterogeneous system
- Light penetration is limited (typ. several mm)

# Light and Tissue

## Types of interactions



# Light and Tissue

## Types of Interactions

- Reflection (Fresnel's law)
- Refraction (Snell's law)
- Scattering, Diffraction
- Absorption  
=> Variation in Transmission (Beer's law)
- Phase shifts
- Emission

$$R = 1 - T = \frac{(n_1 - n_2)^2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2}$$

$$n_2 \sin(\Theta_2) = n_1 \sin(\Theta_1)$$

$$I = I_0 e^{-\alpha(\lambda)z}$$

# Light and Tissue

## Optical properties and parameters

Interaction	Parameter		Unit	
Refraction	Refractive index*	n	[-]	ratio of the light velocity in a vacuum to its velocity in the tissue
Absorption	Absorption coefficient*	$\mu_a$	[mm <sup>-1</sup> ]	Inverse of the mean free path before photon absorption
Scattering	Scattering coefficient*	$\mu_s$	[mm <sup>-1</sup> ]	Inverse of the mean free path between photon scattering
Anisotropy	Anisotropy factor*	g	[-]	describes the distribution of scattering
Reduced scattering		$\mu_s' = \mu_s(1-g)$		
Effective attenuation		$\mu_{\text{eff}} = (3 \mu_a(\mu_a + \mu_s'))^{1/2}$ inverse if the penetration depth if $\mu_a \ll \mu_s'$		

\*fundamental microscopic parameters

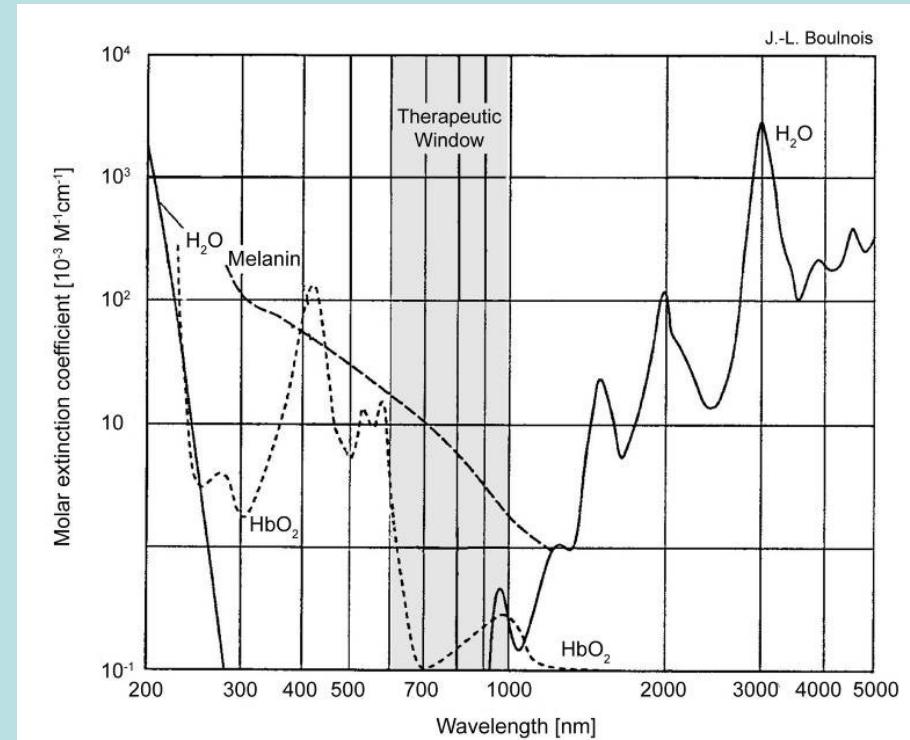
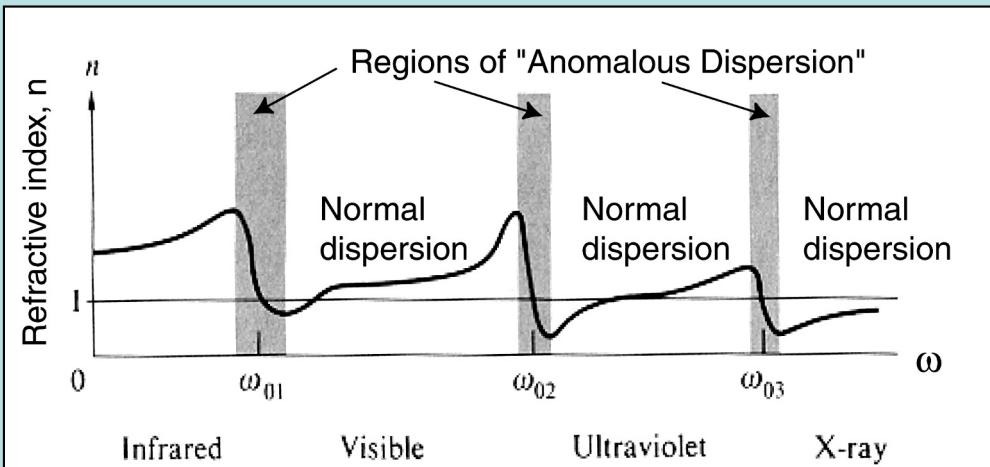
# Light and Tissue

## Optical properties and parameters

All optical parameters of biological tissue depend on the wavelength of the light

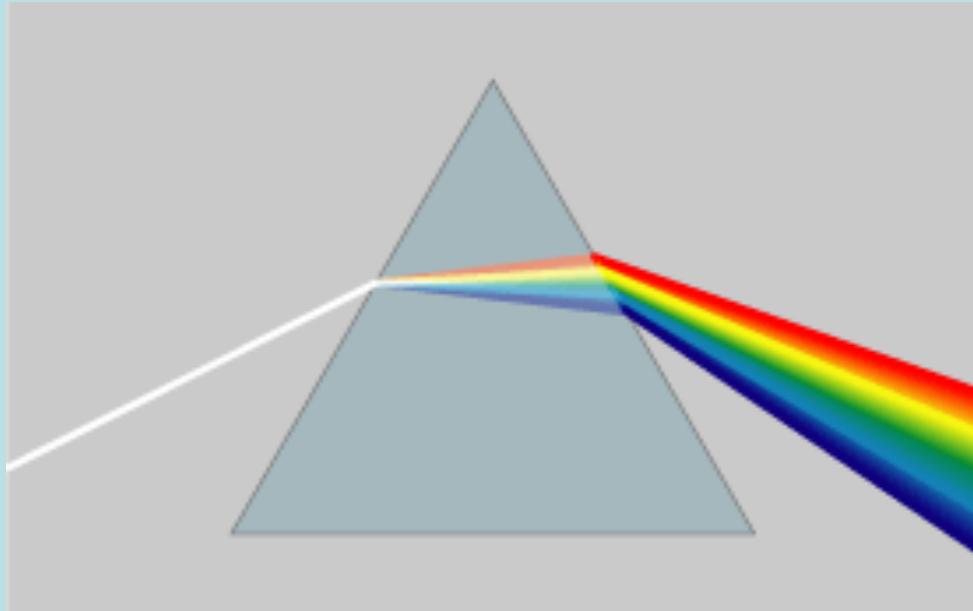
### Absorption

### Refractive index



# Dispersion

= the wavelength dependence of the refractive index



Best known example:  
Diffraction of visible light  
by a prism

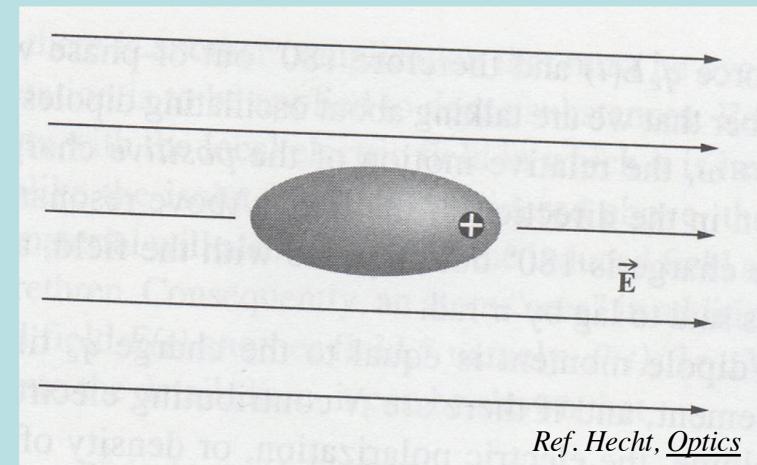
$$n_2 \sin(\Theta_2) = n_1 \sin(\Theta_1)$$

What is the origin of the wavelength/frequency  
dependence of  $n$  ?

# Microscopic Origin of Dispersion

Distortion of an Electron Cloud  
in response to an applied E-field

- the internal charge distribution is modified
- ➔ **generation of electric dipole moments**



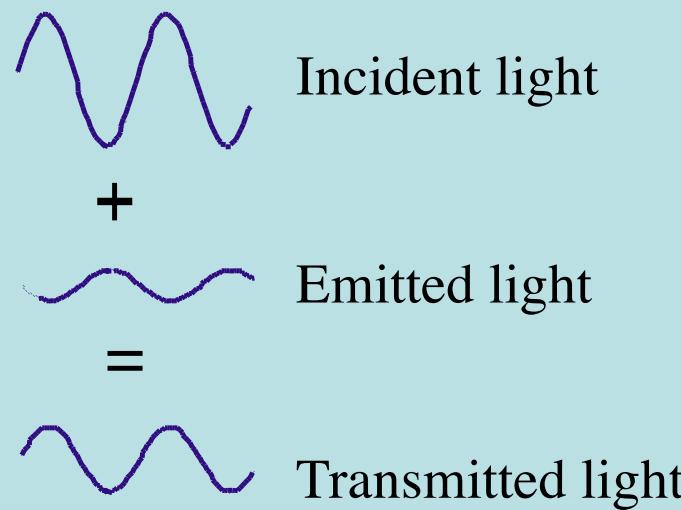
Ref. Hecht, *Optics*

Incident harmonic EM wave:

- time-varying forces and torques act upon internal charge distribution
- ➔ **generation of oscillating dipoles**

# Microscopic Origin of Dispersion

When excited by the light wave, the electron will oscillate at the driving frequency, and emit light at that frequency.



The crucial issue is the relative phase of the incident light and this reemitted light ...

# Microscopic Origin of Dispersion

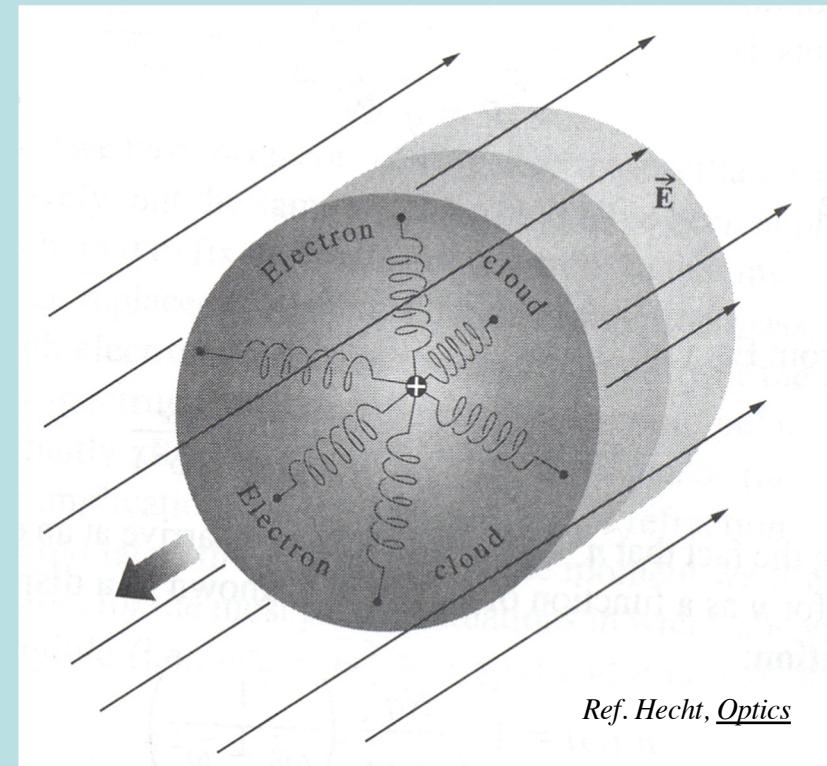
Consider the electron to be elastically bound to the nucleus, like a harmonic oscillator with a natural or resonant frequency  $\omega_0$ .

$$\vec{E} \quad \leftarrow \quad \rightarrow \quad \vec{F}$$

driving force      restoring force

- for short displacements  $x$ ,  
F should be linear:  $F = -k x$

- resonant frequency  $\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m_e}}$

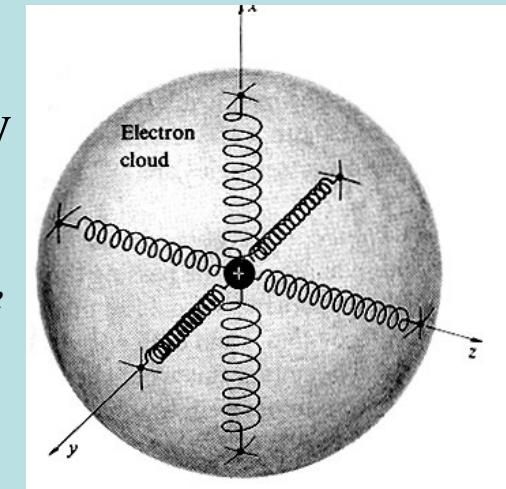


# Important Note

For simplicity here, we are

- assuming that the electron cloud is elastically bound to the nucleus **isotropically**,

*but in complex materials, the molecular “spring constant” can be different for different orientations (polarizations) of the  $E$ -field. This will lead to different indices of refraction for different  $E$ -field polarizations ... “**birefringence**.”*



Ref. Hecht, *Optics*

- only considering the **harmonic** response of the electron cloud to the driving force of the incident  $E$ -field.

*Assuming such a linear response is correct, if the displacements induced are small. Large  $E$ -fields (present in high intensity laser pulses) can induce large displacements, and non-linear restoring forces. In this case, there are higher order, anharmonic terms to consider. This is the domain of **Nonlinear Optics**.*

# Microscopic Origin of Dispersion

Consider an electron on a spring with position  $x_e(t)$ , and driven by a light wave,  $E_0 \exp(-i\omega t)$ :

$$m_e \frac{d^2 x_e}{dt^2} + m_e \omega_0^2 x_e = e E_0 e^{-i\omega t}$$

↑  
mass • acceleration

↑  
restoring force

↑  
driving force

$m_e$  = electron mass  
 $\omega_0$  = Resonant frequency  
 $e$  = electron charge

(see Hecht, Addison Wesley, 2000)

The solution is:  $x_e(t) = \left[ \frac{(e/m_e)}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2} \right] E_0 e^{-i\omega t}$  Wesley, 2000)

The amplitude of oscillation is frequency dependent, with the maximum displacement occurring at the resonant frequency,  $\omega_0$ .

# Microscopic Origin of Dispersion

A more realistic model is a damped forced oscillator, a harmonic oscillator experiencing a sinusoidal force and viscous drag (friction).

Add a viscous drag term:  $\gamma$

*Term for damping force  
linear proportional to  
velocity of mass*

$$eE_0e^{-i\omega t} = m_e \frac{d^2x_e}{dt^2} + m_e\omega^2x_e + m_e\gamma \frac{dx_e}{dt}$$

The solution is now:

$$x_e(t) = \left[ \frac{(e/m_e)}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2 - i\omega\gamma} \right] E(t)$$

# Microscopic Origin of Dispersion

The solution

$$x_e(t) = \left[ \frac{(e/m_e)}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2 - i\omega\gamma} \right] E(t)$$

Can be rewritten as:

$$x_e(t) = x_o e^{-i(\omega t - \alpha)}$$

(see Hecht, Addison Wesley, 2000)

Where

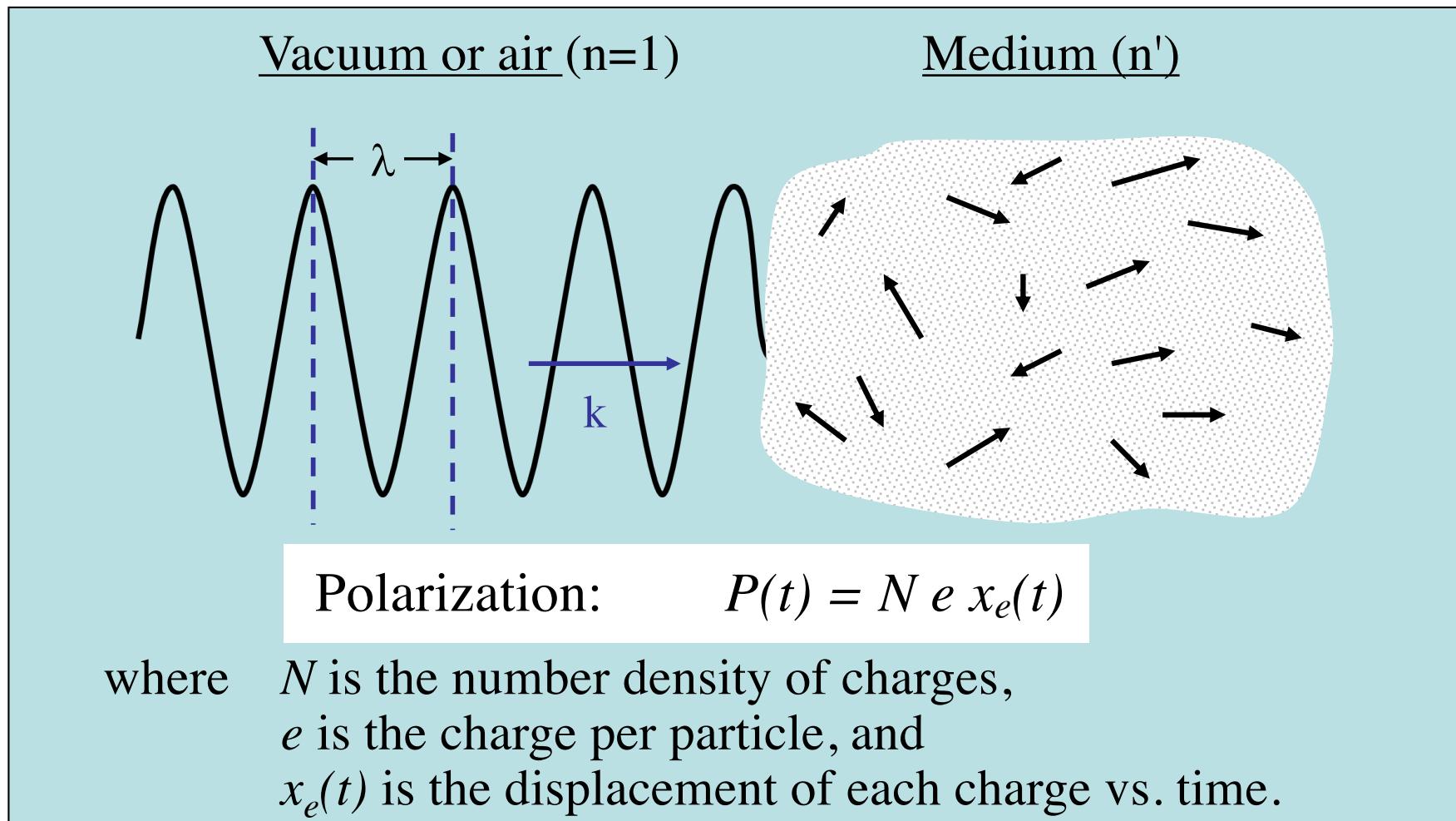
$$x_o = \frac{eE_o}{m_e} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(\omega_0^2 - \omega^2)^2 + \gamma^2 \omega^2}}$$

and  $\alpha$  is the phase lag

$$\alpha = \arctan \left( \frac{\gamma \omega}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2} \right)$$

The electron still oscillates at the driving frequency of the light wave, **but with an *amplitude and a phase* that depend on the relative frequencies.**

# The incident light wave will induce a polarization in the medium



**It can be shown that the Electric Field in the Medium is given by:** (see Hecht, Addison Wesley, 2000)

$$E(z,t) = E_0 \cdot e^{(-\alpha/2)z} \cdot e^{i(nkz - \omega t)}$$

Absorption causes  
attenuation of the field

Refractive index  
changes the k-vector

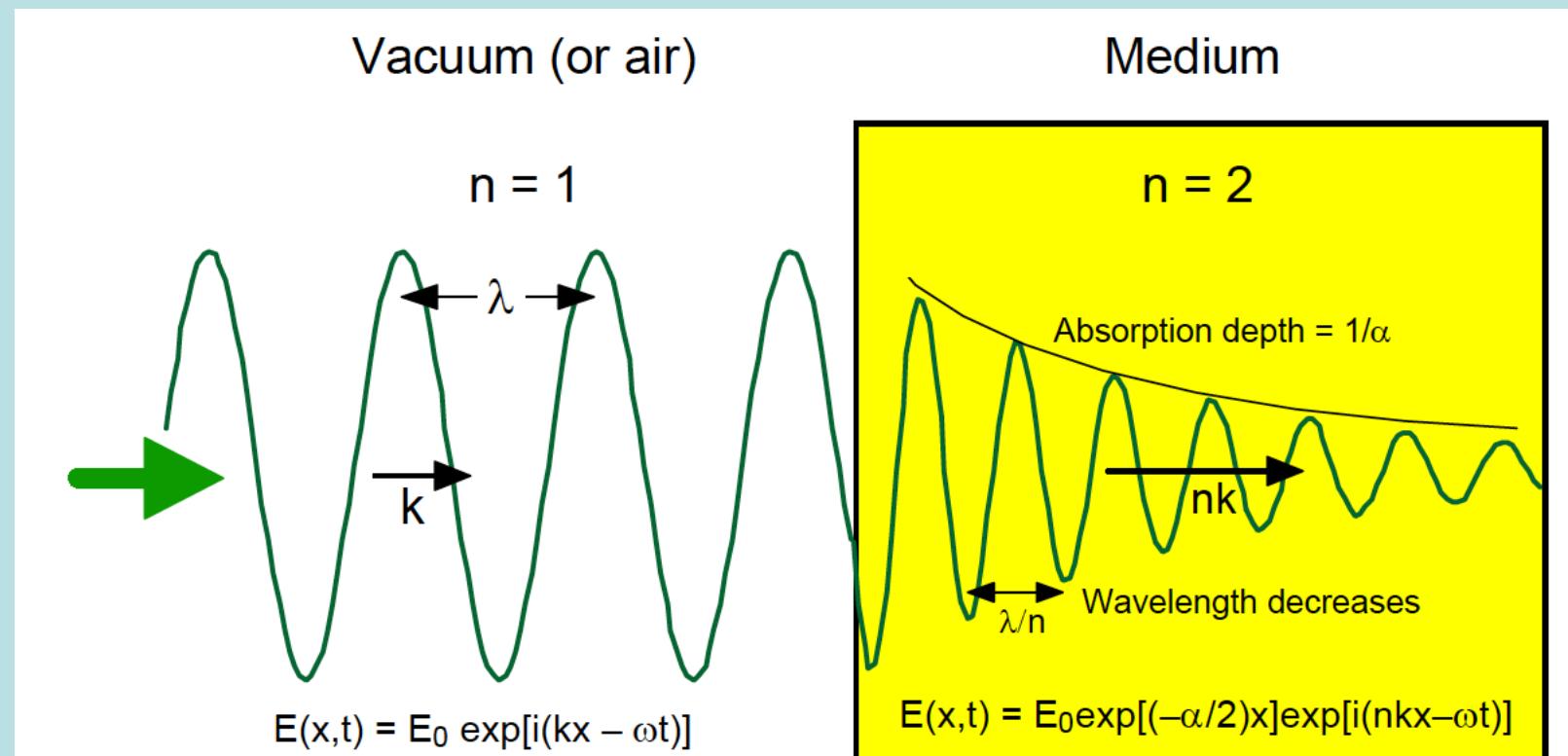
$$\alpha = \frac{Ne^2}{4m_e\epsilon_0 c_0} \frac{\gamma/2}{(\omega_0 - \omega)^2 + (\gamma/2)^2}$$

$$n - 1 = \frac{Ne^2}{4m_e\epsilon_0} \frac{\omega_0 - \omega}{(\omega_0 - \omega)^2 + (\gamma/2)^2}$$

$c_0$  = speed of light in vacuum

# ... and undergo Absorption

The incident light wave will induce a polarization in the medium that will radiate and modify the propagating wave ...



Typically, the speed of light, the wavelength, and the amplitude decrease

# Electric Field in the Medium - Significance

Electrical field

$$E(z,t) = E_0(0) \cdot e^{(-\alpha/2)z} \cdot e^{i(n k z - \omega t)}$$

Refractive index

$$n - 1 = \frac{Ne^2}{4m_e \epsilon_0} \frac{\omega_0 - \omega}{(\omega_0 - \omega)^2 + (\gamma/2)^2}$$

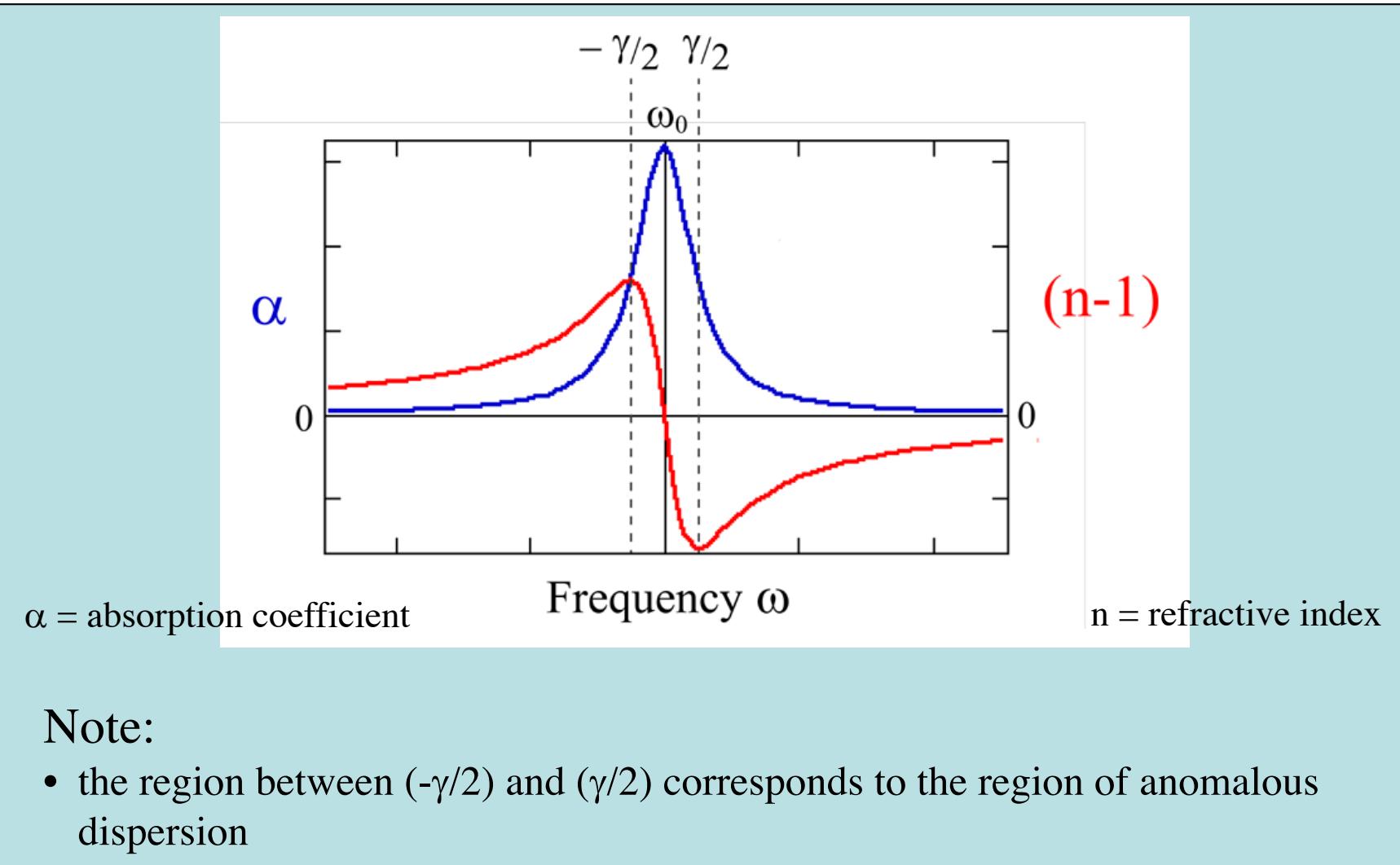
Refractive index and wavelength/frequency correspondance:

$\omega_0 \gg \omega \rightarrow n$  hardly depends on  $\lambda \rightarrow$  Transparency/colorless

$\omega \rightarrow \omega_0 \rightarrow n$  increases with  $\lambda \rightarrow$  Normal Dispersion

$\omega = \omega_0 \rightarrow E$  is dominated by absorption + viscous drag  $\rightarrow$  Anomalous Dispersion

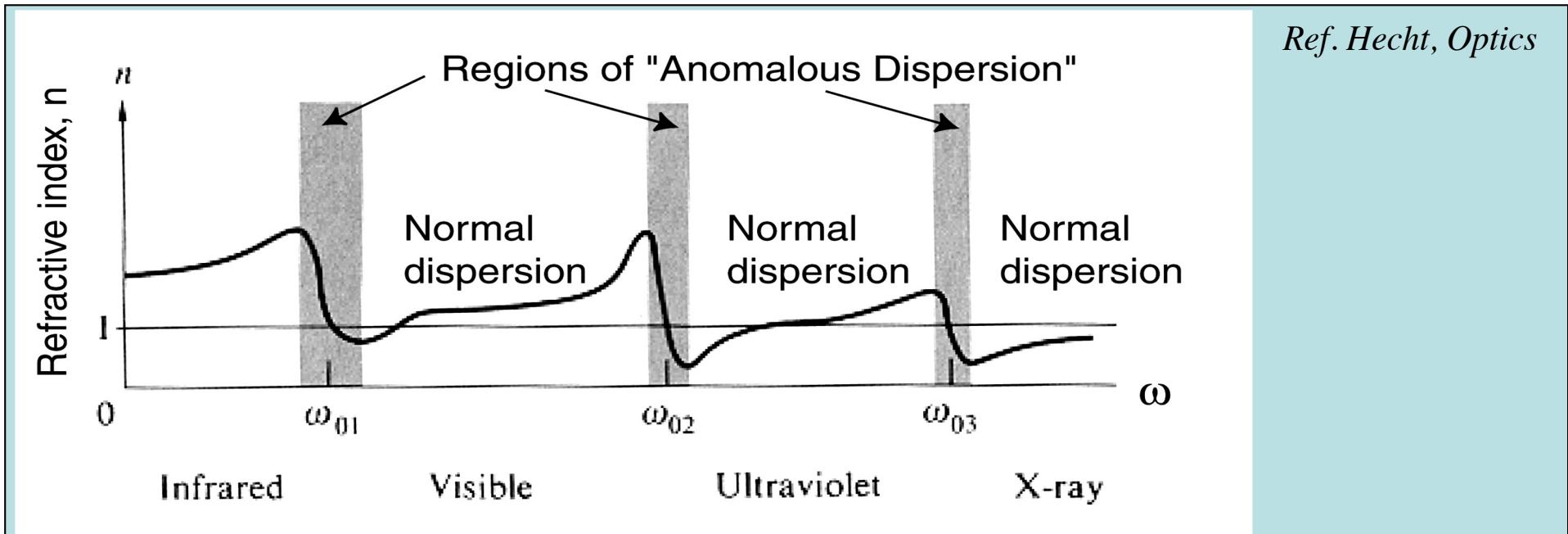
# Refractive Index and Absorption Coefficient



Note:

- the region between  $(-\gamma/2)$  and  $(\gamma/2)$  corresponds to the region of anomalous dispersion

# Normal and anomalous Dispersion



IR:

Vibrational and rotational resonances

Visible and UV :

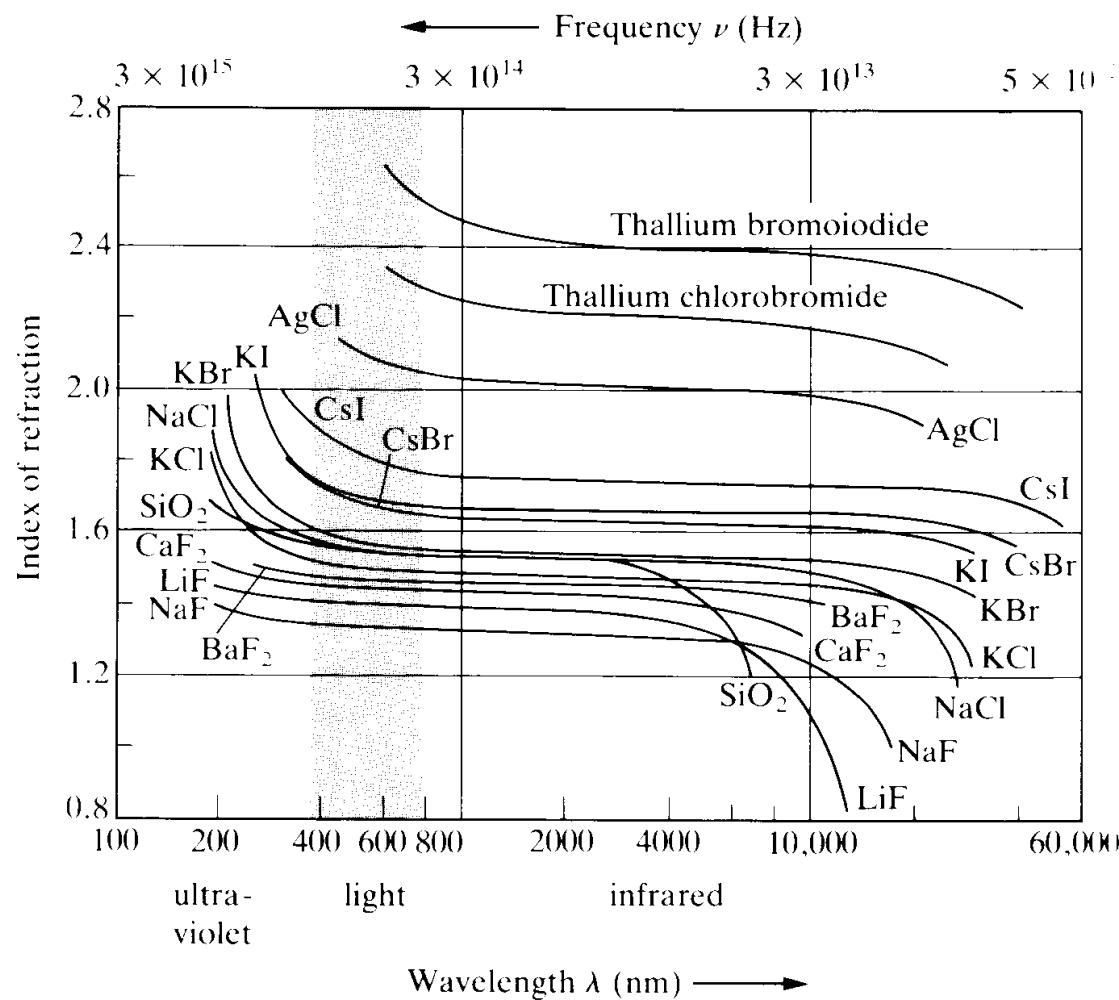
Electronic resonances

X-rays:

“Inner-shell” electronic resonances

$n$  increases with frequency, except in "anomalous dispersion" regions, where there is absorption.

# Dispersion: Refractive Index vs. Wavelength



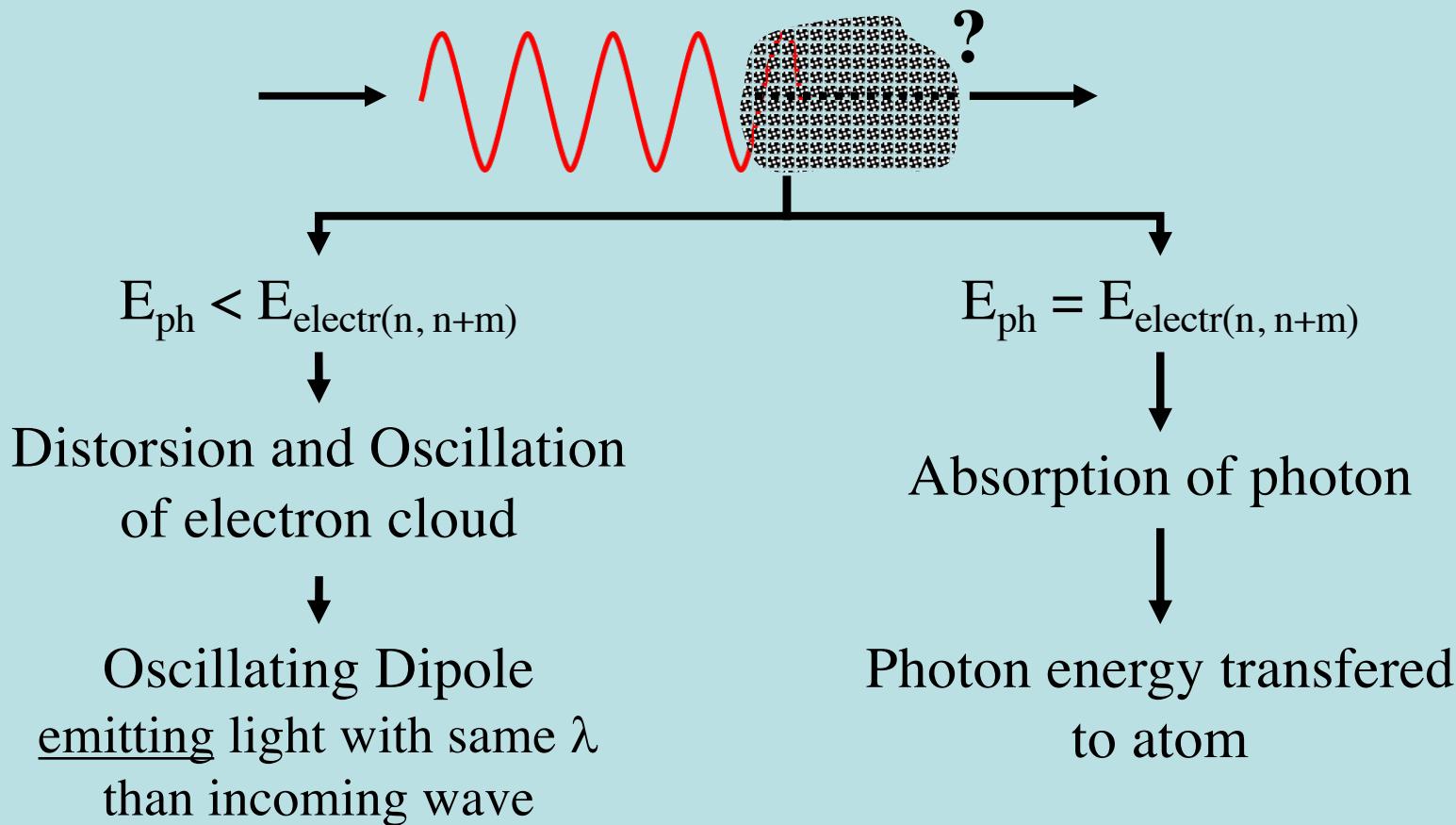
Index of refraction versus wavelength and frequency for several important optical crystals.

(Adapted from data published by The Harshaw Chemical Co.)

# Microscopic Origin of Dispersion

## A more quantum-based interpretation

Interaction of EM waves with atoms/molecules in a medium:



$E_{ph}$  = Energy of incoming photon;  $E_{electr(n,n+m)}$  = Energy difference between two electronic states of the atom

# Refractive Index values for Tissues (at 550 nm)

• Water	1.33
• Extracellular fluids, cytoplasm	1.35 – 1.38
• Whole tissues (brain, lung, aorta, ...)	1.36 - 1.40
• Fatty tissues	1.45
• Tooth enamel	1.62
• Melanin	1.7

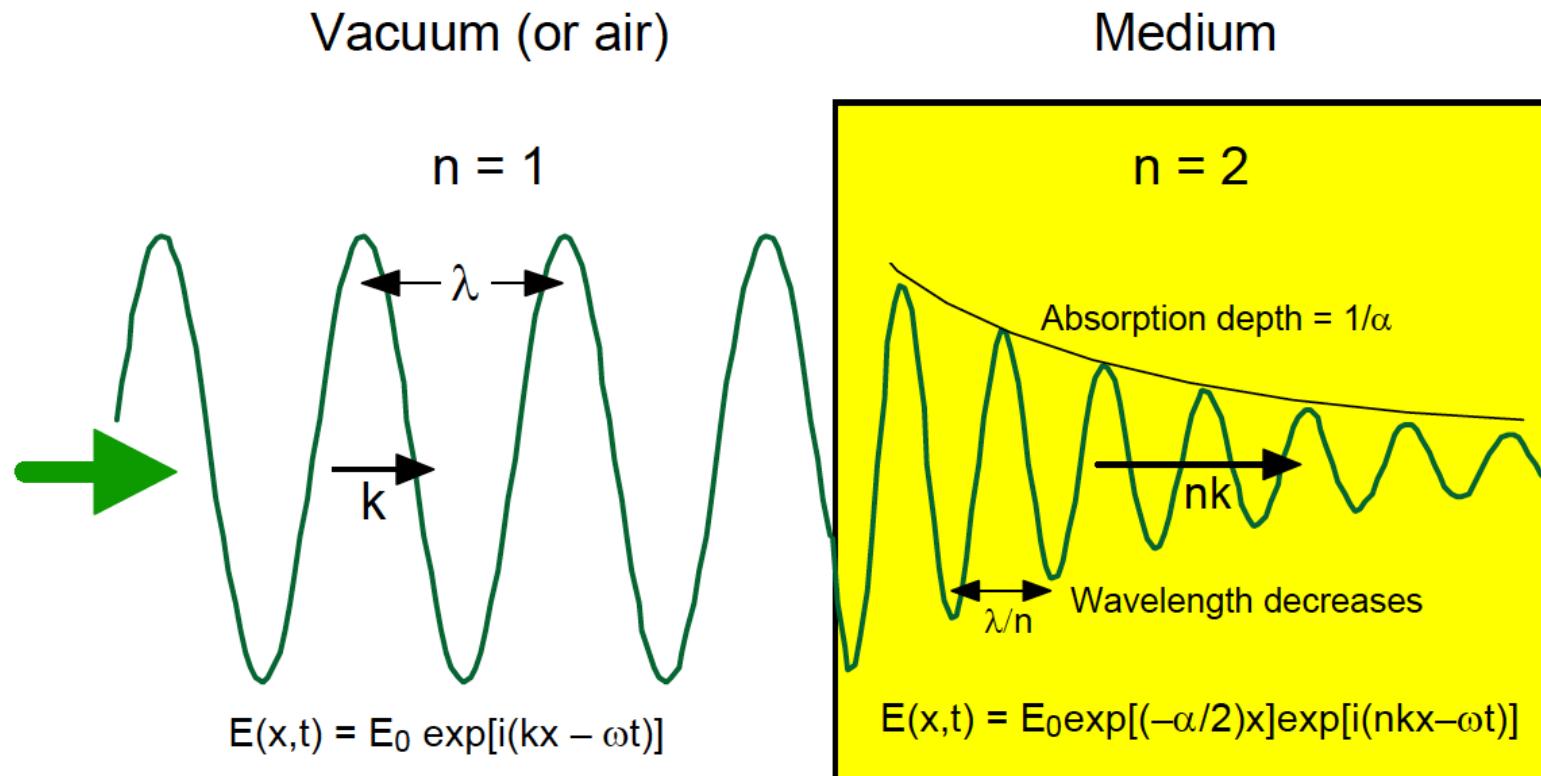
# Refractive Index Values of Cell Components (at 550 nm)

Cell Component	Index
cytoplasm	1.35
cytoplasm	1.358-1.374
cortical cytoplasm	1.353-1.368
lipid	1.48
melanin	1.7
protein	1.50
dried protein	1.58
cytoplasm, rat liver cells	1.38
mitochondria, rat liver cells	1.40
mitochondria, rat liver	1.42
cytoplasm, hamster ovary cells	1.37

Ref: [www.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu](http://www.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu)

# Absorption Coefficient and the Irradiance

(Beer-Lambert Law)



The Irradiance

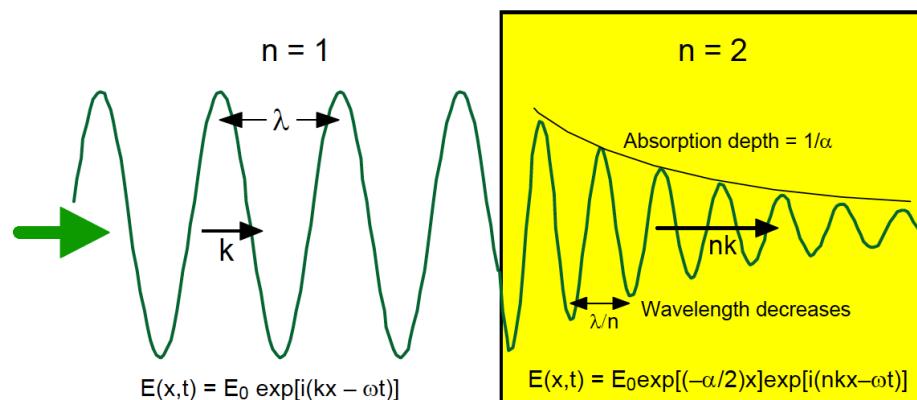
$$I(x) = |E(x, t)|^2 = I(0) \exp(-\alpha x)$$

# Absorption Coefficient and the Irradiance

(Beer-Lambert Law)

Vacuum (or air)

Medium



If you can measure ...

- the incident irradiance  $I(0)$ 

and

- the irradiance  $I(x)$  transmitted through a sample of known thickness  $x$ then you can determine the absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  of the sample

The Irradiance  $I(z) = I_0 \exp(-\alpha x)$

# ABSORPTION in TISSUE

# Absorption

= Extraction of energy from light by matter

Diagnostic applications

Transitions between two **energy** levels of a molecule that are well defined at specific wavelengths could serve as spectral fingerprint of the molecule

- Various types of Chromophores (light absorbers) in Tissue
- Tumor detection & other physiological assessments (e.g. pulse-oxymetry)

Therapeutic applications

Absorption of energy is the **primary mechanism** that allows light from a source (laser) to produce physical effects on tissue for treatment purpose

- Lasik Eye Surgery (**L**aser **A**ssisted in **s**itu **K**eratomileusis)
- Tatoo Removal
- PDT
- vascular applications of laser

# Metrics for Absorption

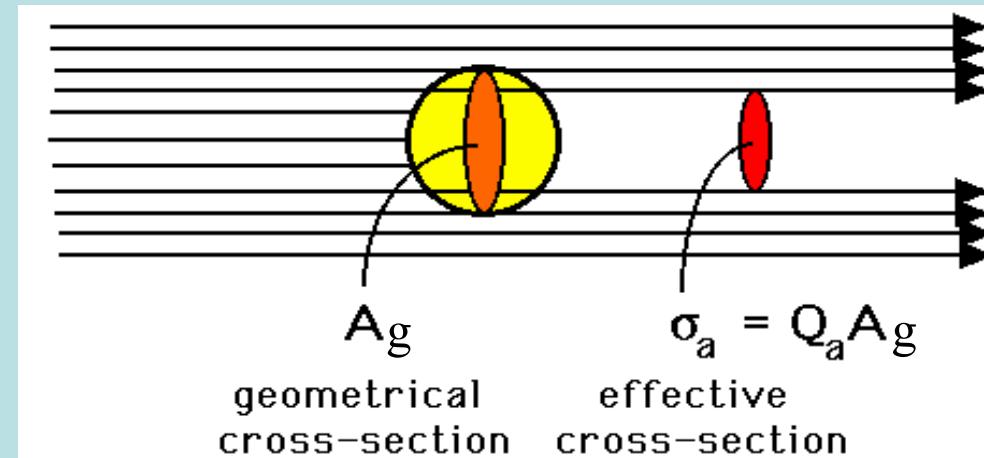
## Absorption Cross-section

$\sigma_a$  [m<sup>2</sup>]

- Consider a chromophore idealized as a sphere with a particular geometrical size.
- Consider that this sphere blocks incident light and casts a shadow, which constitutes absorption.
- The size of absorption shadow = absorption cross-section

$$\sigma_a = Q_a \cdot A_g$$

$Q_a$ : absorption efficiency  
 $A_g$ : geometrical cross-section



# Metrics for Absorption

## Absorption coefficient

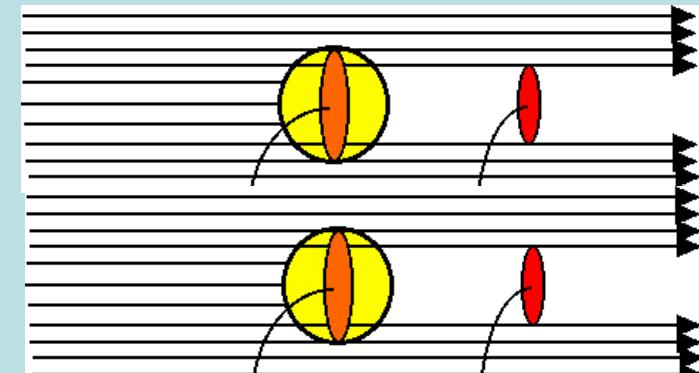
$\mu_a$  [cm<sup>-1</sup>]

- describes a medium containing many absorbing particles and is defined as:

$$\mu_a = N_a \cdot \sigma_a$$

$\sigma_a$ : the effective cross-section [m<sup>2</sup>]

$N_a$ : absorbers per cm<sup>3</sup> [m<sup>-3</sup>] (= a volume density)



## Assumptions:

- Cross section is independent of relative orientation of the impinging light and absorber
- uniform distribution of identical absorbing particles

→  $\mu_a$ : Absorption cross-sectional area per unit volume of medium

# Metrics for Absorption

Absorption mean free path  $l_a$  [m]

- Represents the average distance a photon travels before being absorbed

$$l_a = \frac{1}{\mu_a}$$

# Absorption Fundamentals

Transmission coefficient  $T$  [-]

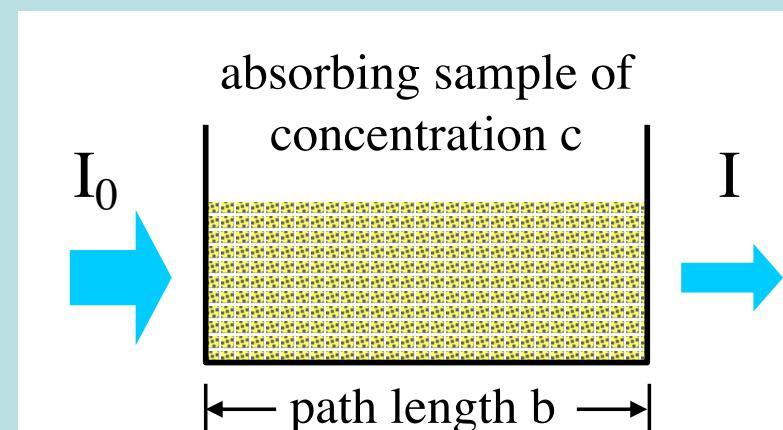
Absorbance  $A$  [-]

Transmission coefficient  $T$

$$T = \frac{I}{I_0}$$

Absorbance  $A$   
(attenuation or optical density)

$$A = -\log(T) = \log\left(\frac{I_0}{I}\right)$$



How does  $\mu_a$  relates with the absorbance and transmission ?

# Connection between T/A and $\mu_a$

An absorbing medium is characterized by the absorption coefficient  $\mu_a$ , the transmission coefficient T, and the absorbance A.

Are they related?



Lambert – Beer (-Bouguer) Law:  
describes the effect of either thickness or concentration of the sample on absorption

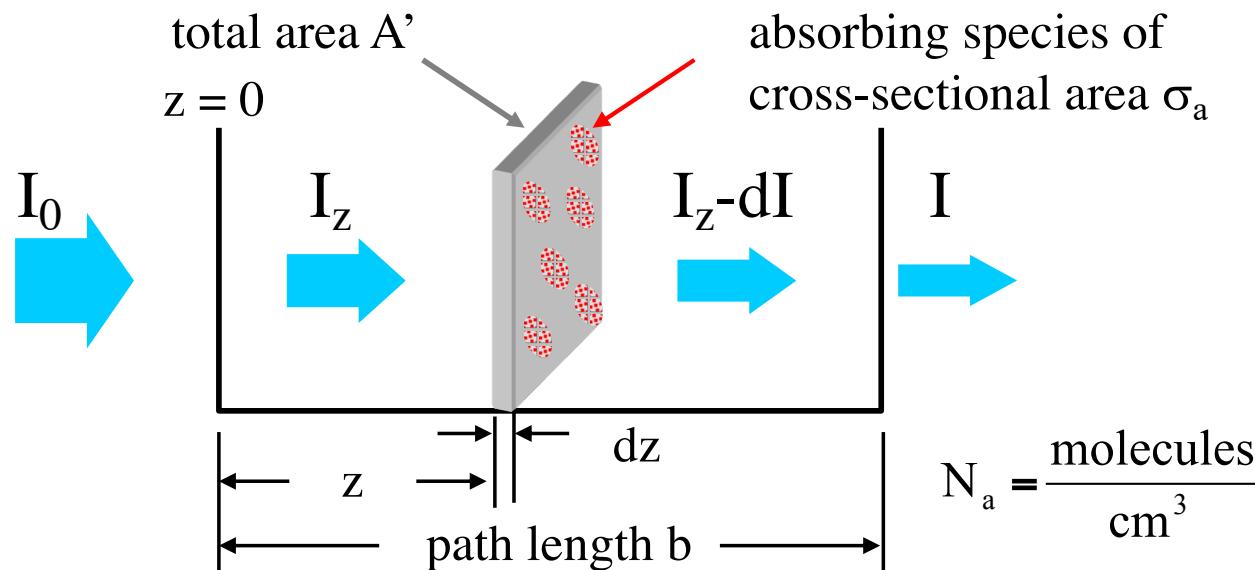
$$I = I_o e^{-\mu_a \cdot b}$$

Pierre Bouguer (1698–1758)  
Johann Heinrich Lambert (1728–1777)

$$A = \epsilon c b$$

August Beer (1825–1863)

# Lambert-Beer Law



$\sigma_a$  = absorption cross-sectional area [cm<sup>2</sup>]

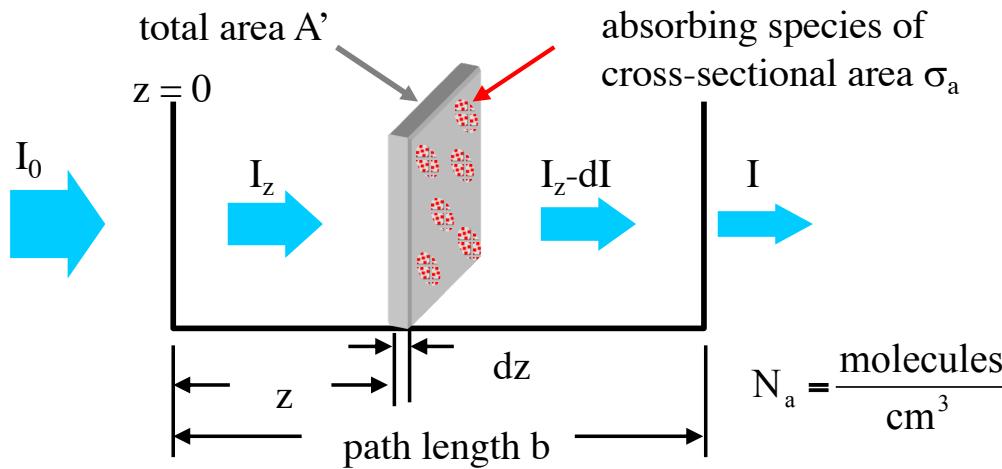
$I_0$  = Intensity entering the sample at  $z = 0$  [W/cm<sup>2</sup>]

$I$  = Intensity of light leaving the sample

$I_z$  = Intensity entering the infinitesimal slab at  $z$

$dI$  = Intensity absorbed in the slab

# Lambert-Beer Law



Total opaque area on the slab due to absorbers

$$\sigma_a \cdot N_a \cdot A' \cdot dz$$

Number of absorbers in the slab volume

Loss of intensity

$$dI = -[\sigma_a \cdot N_a] \cdot I(z) \cdot dz \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \int_{I_0}^I \frac{dI}{I(z)} = - \int_0^b \sigma_a \cdot N_a \cdot dz$$

Fraction of photons absorbed



$$-\ln\left(\frac{I}{I_0}\right) = \sigma_a \cdot N_a \cdot b$$

# Lambert-Beer Law

The concentration (molarity) is given by  $c = N_a / N_A$  with  $N_A$  = Avogadro's constant

$$(1) \quad c \left[ \frac{\text{mol}}{\text{cm}^3} \right] = N_a \left[ \frac{\text{molec}}{\text{cm}^3} \right] \Big/ \left( 6.023 \cdot 10^{23} \frac{\text{molec}}{\text{mol}} \right) \Leftrightarrow N_a = 6.023 \cdot 10^{23} \cdot c \quad [\text{cm}^{-3}]$$

moreover

$$(2) \quad \log(x) \stackrel{(*)}{=} \frac{\ln(x)}{\ln(10)} = \frac{1}{2.303} \cdot \ln(x)$$

$$(*) \quad \log_b(x) = \frac{\log_k(x)}{\log_k(b)}$$

- $\ln(x) = \log_e(x)$
- $\log(x) = \log_{10}(x)$

inserting (1) and (2) in  $- \ln\left(\frac{I}{I_o}\right) = \sigma_a \cdot N_a \cdot b$

$$- \log\left(\frac{I}{I_o}\right) = \frac{1}{2.303} \cdot \sigma_a \cdot N_a \cdot b = \frac{N_A \cdot \sigma_a}{2.303} \cdot c \cdot b = \varepsilon \cdot c \cdot b = A$$

$\varepsilon$  = Molar Extinction  
Coefficient  $[\text{cm}^2 \text{ mol}^{-1}]$   
(Measure of 'Absorbing  
Power' of species)

# Lambert-Beer Law

$$(3) -\log\left(\frac{I}{I_0}\right) = \varepsilon \cdot c \cdot b \Leftrightarrow \frac{I}{I_0} = 10^{-\varepsilon \cdot c \cdot b} = \boxed{10^{-A} = T} \quad \text{Correlation Absorbance-Transmission}$$

$$(4) \ln\left(\frac{I}{I_0}\right) = \ln\left(10^{-\varepsilon \cdot c \cdot b}\right) = -2.303 \cdot \varepsilon \cdot c \cdot b = -\sigma_a \cdot N_a \cdot b = -\mu_a \cdot b$$

$$\boxed{\mu_a = 2.303 \varepsilon c}$$

Correlation  
Absorption coeff.- Extinction coeff.

- By measuring the Transmission or the Absorbance for a given  $c$ , we can obtain  $\varepsilon \rightarrow$  usually *ex vivo*
- If  $\varepsilon$  is known, and if we can measure  $\mu_a$  *in vivo*, we can quantify the concentration of the chromophores

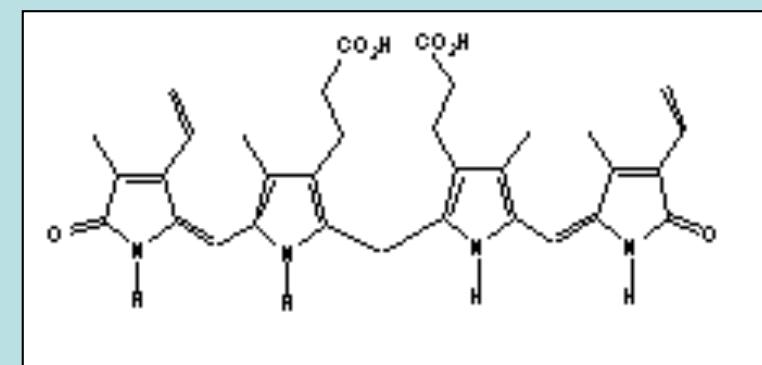
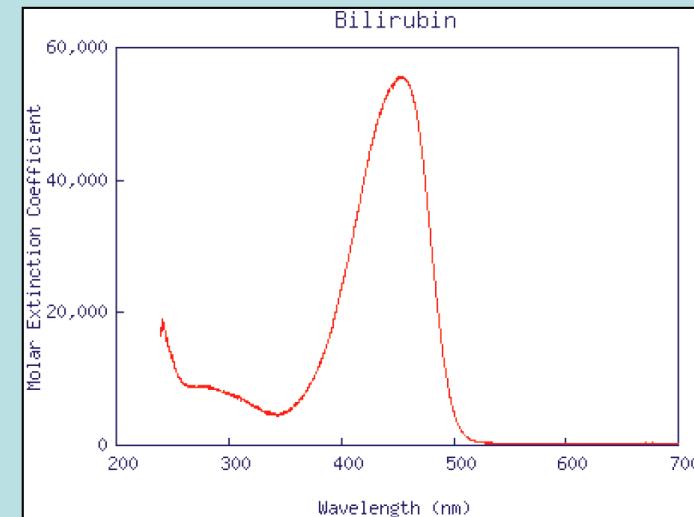
# Limitation of Lambert-Beer's law

The Lambert-Beer's law is limited by:

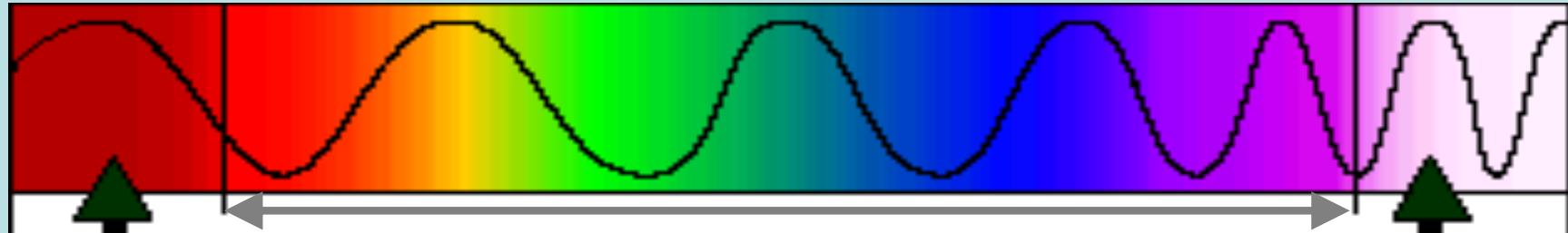
- deviations in absorptivity at high concentrations ( $>0.01M$ )
- scattering of light due to particulates in the sample
- fluorescence or phosphorescence of the sample
- changes in refractive index at high analyte concentration
- shifts in chemical equilibria as a function of concentration
- non-monochromatic radiation, deviations can be minimized by using a relatively flat part of the absorption spectrum such as the maximum of an absorption band
- stray light

# Bilirubin Example

- diameter is about 1 nm
- at 460 nm,  $\varepsilon=53846$  [ $\text{cm}^{-1}\text{M}^{-1}$ ]
- typical jaundiced neonates serum bilirubin concentration is 10 mg/dl
- Molar weight: 574.65 g/mole
- Concentration:  $0.17 \cdot 10^{-3}$  M
- What is  $\mu_a$  ? (21  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )
- Optical cross section:  $\sigma_a = ?$  ( $4.5 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^2$ )
- Ratio optical versus geometrical cross section ? (0.6)



# Absorbers in Tissue



NIR

VISIBLE

UV

## NIR

- Hemoglobin
- Lipids
- Water

## UV-VIS

- DNA
- Hemoglobin
- Lipids
- Structural protein\*
- Electron carriers\*
- Amino acids\*

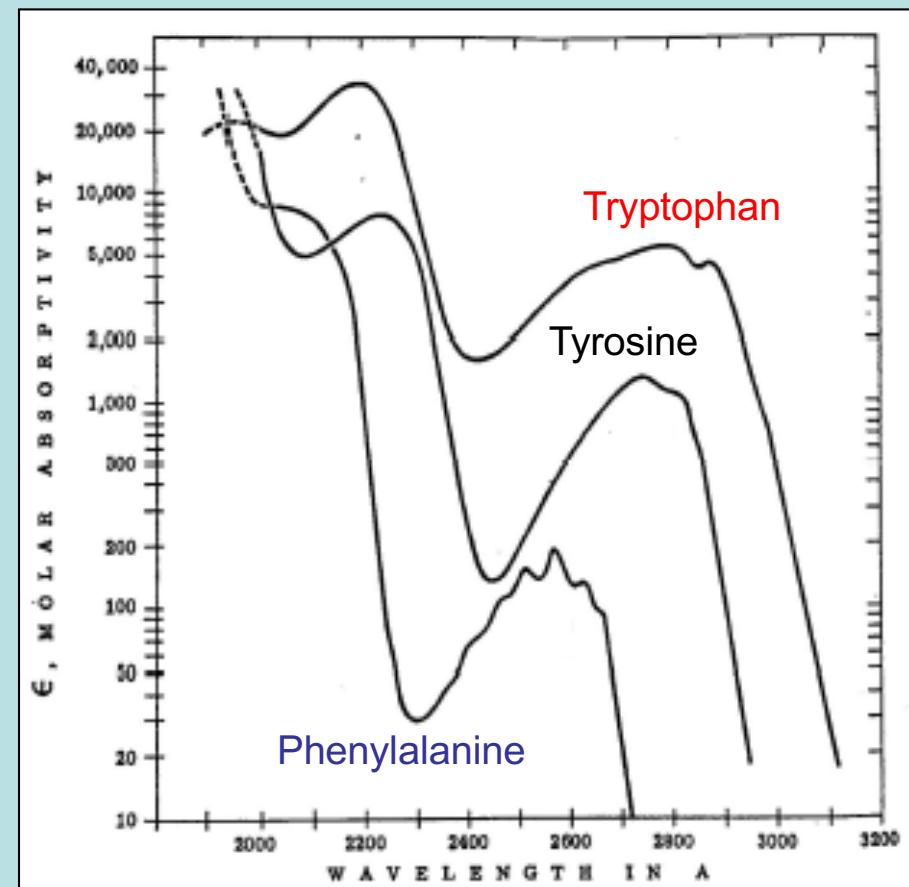
\* Absorbers that fluoresce when excited in the UV-VIS

# UV Absorption

Dominant absorbers in UV:  
**Protein, amino acid, fatty acid  
 and DNA**

- Protein is dominant ‘non-water’ constituent of all soft tissue (~ 30%)
- Absorption properties determined by peptide bonds and amino acid residues

Absorber	Absorption wavelength
Peptide	190 nm
Amino acids	210 nm – 220 nm 260 nm – 280 nm
DNA	≤ 320 nm



**Large water absorption  $\lambda < 180$  nm**

*Note!! The wavelength scale is in Å: 1 Å = 0.1 nm*

# Molar extinction coefficients for Biologic Chromophores

## Purine & Pyrimidine Bases and Derivatives

Molecule	$\lambda$ [nm]	$\epsilon$ (x 10 <sup>-3</sup> ) [cm <sup>2</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup> ]
Adenine (A)	260.5	13.4
Adenosine	259.5	14.9
Guanine (G)	275	8.1
Guanosine	276	9.0
Cytosine (C)	217	6.1
Thymine (T)	263.75	7.9

# Molar extinction coefficients for Biologic Chromophores

## Amino acids

Molecule	$\lambda$ [nm]	$\varepsilon$ ( $\times 10^{-3}$ ) [ $\text{cm}^2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ ]
Tryptophan	280, 219	5.6, 47
Tyrosine	274, 222, 193	1.4, 8, 48
Phenylalanine	257, 206, 188	0.2, 9.3, 60
Histidine	211	5.9
Cystine	250	0.3

# Molar extinction coefficients for Biologic Chromophores

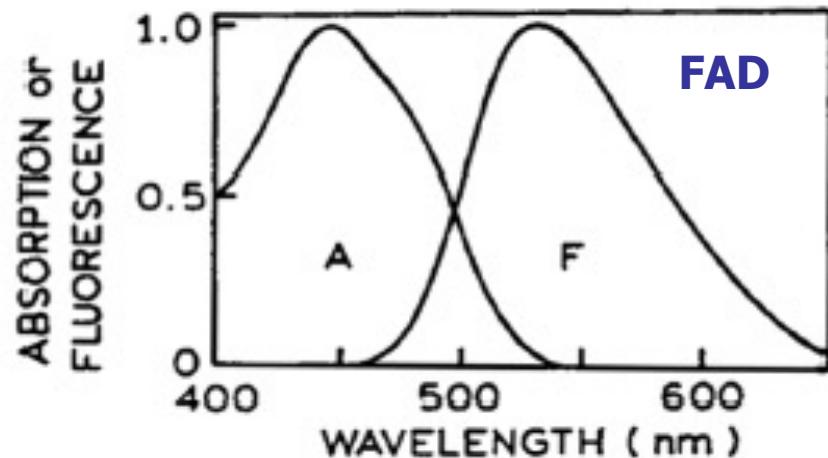
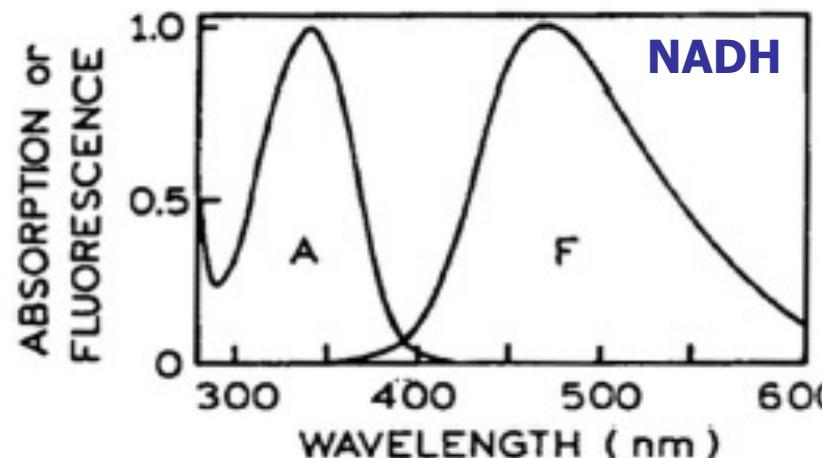
Respiratory Enzymes and nucleic acids

Molecule	$\lambda$ [nm]	$\varepsilon$ (x 10 <sup>-3</sup> ) [cm <sup>2</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup> ]
NADH	340, 259	6.23, 14.4
NAD+	260	16.9
DNA, RNA	258, 260	6.6, 7.4

NADH: Nicotinamide- adenine dinucleotide

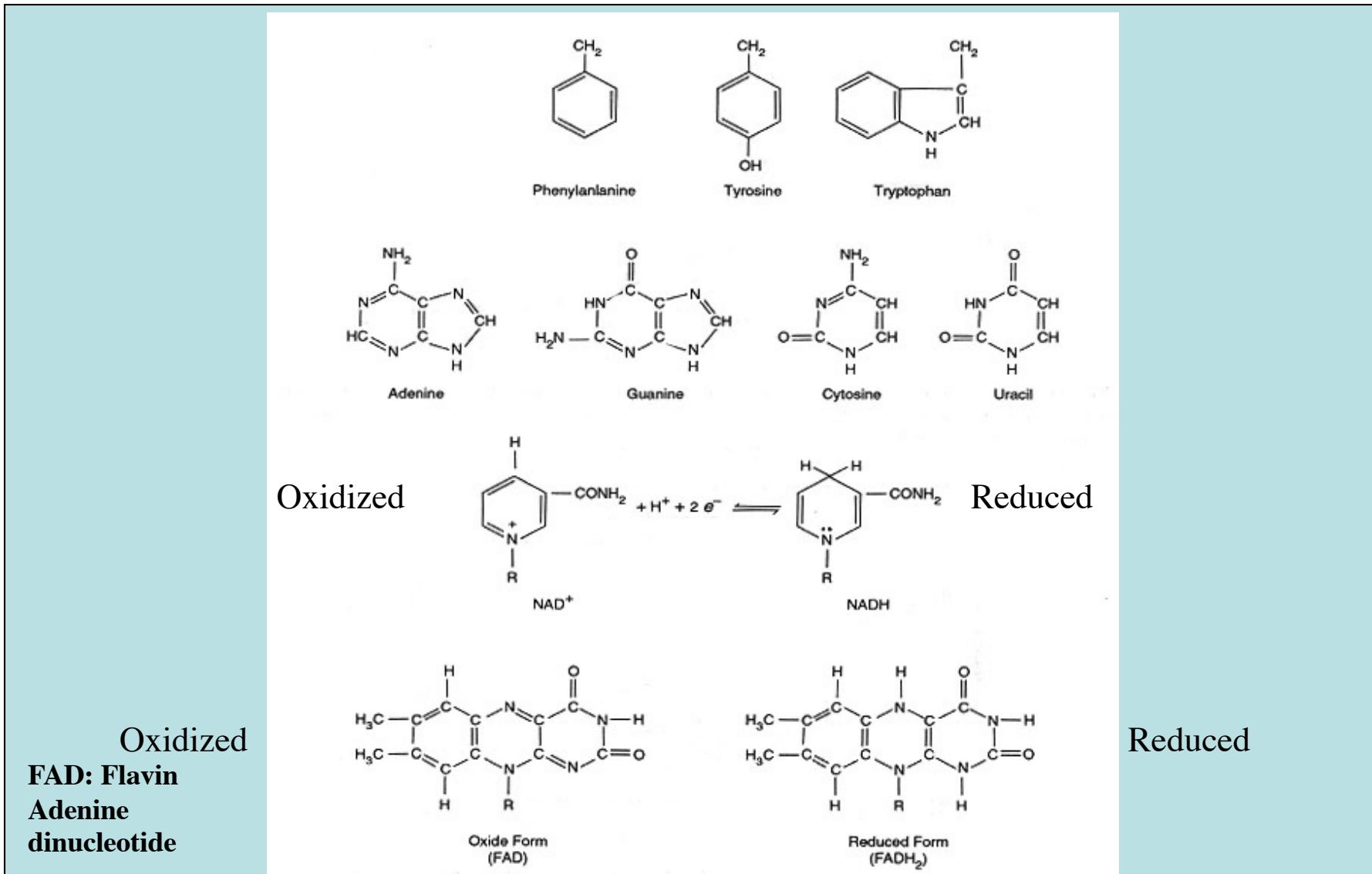
## Respiratory Enzymes: NADH, FAD, Cytochrome a<sub>3</sub>

- These enzymes play a key role in providing the proton-motive force necessary for oxidative phosphorylation
- If tissue is oxygen starved, [NADH] and [FADH<sub>2</sub>] will be **enhanced**
- **Reduced NADH concentration** is indicative of high oxygen consumption and is characteristic of tumor tissue

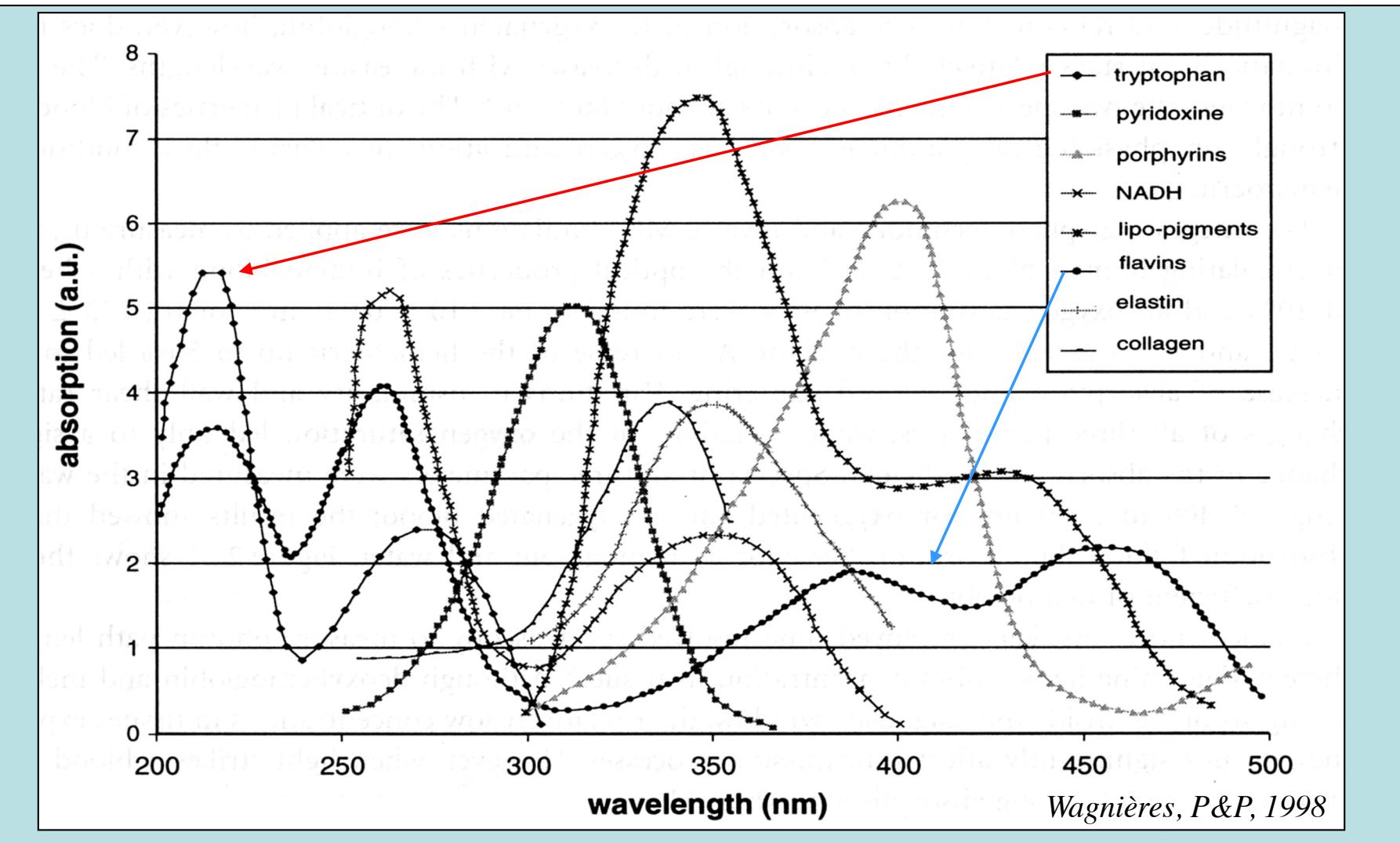


- NADH (FAD) strongly fluoresce whereas NAD<sup>+</sup> (FADH<sub>2</sub>) don't
- Cytochrome a<sub>3</sub> has a prominent absorption peak at  $\lambda = 840$  nm

# Biological Chromophores - Structures



# Absorption of various constituents in tissue

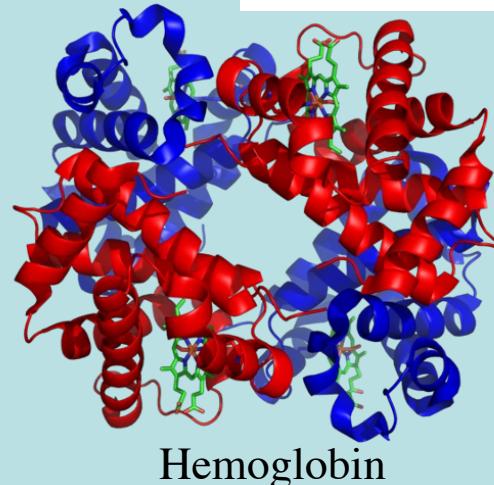
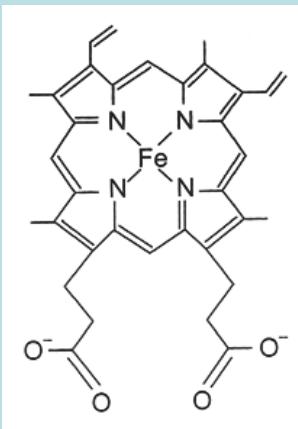


# Visible and NIR Absorption

Main Absorbers at visible and NIR:

- Hemoglobin
- Lipid

Heme →



Hemoglobin

## Hemoglobin

- Each hemoglobin has 4 heme ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ) sites to bind  $\text{O}_2$
- Responsible for oxygen transport ( $\text{HbO}_2$  and  $\text{Hb}$ )
- Oxygen saturation is an indicator of oxygen delivery and utilization as well as metabolic activity

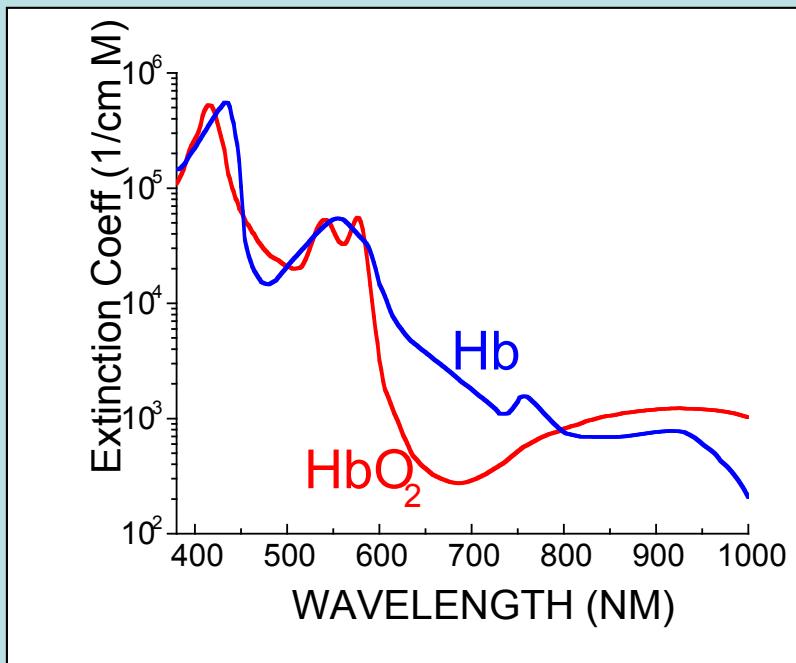
# Hemoglobin

Absorption peaks for

- $\text{HbO}_2$ :  
418, 542, 577, and 925 nm
- Hb:  
430, 550, 758, 910 nm

Isobestic points\*

547, 569, 586, and 798 nm



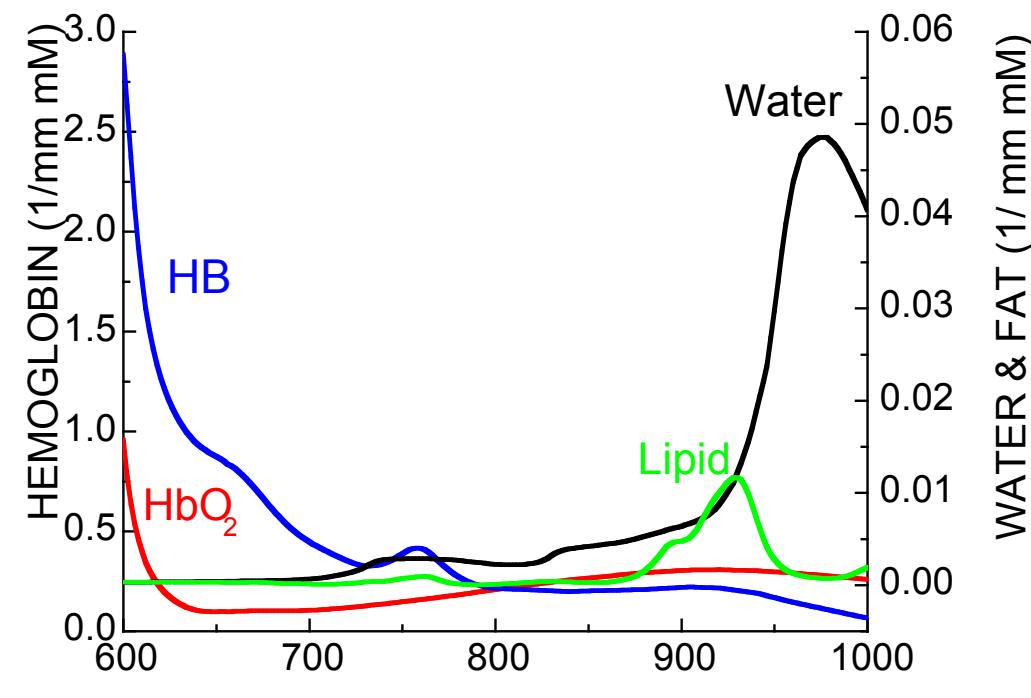
(\*) An *isosbestic point* is a specific wavelength at which two (or more) chemical species have the same extinction coefficients.

# Lipid (Fat)

- Important energy storage in the body

## Tissue optics:

- Site-specific measurements of body composition
- Monitoring of physiological changes in female breast tissue



Lipids absorption probably due to C-H vibration mode overtones

# Infrared Absorption

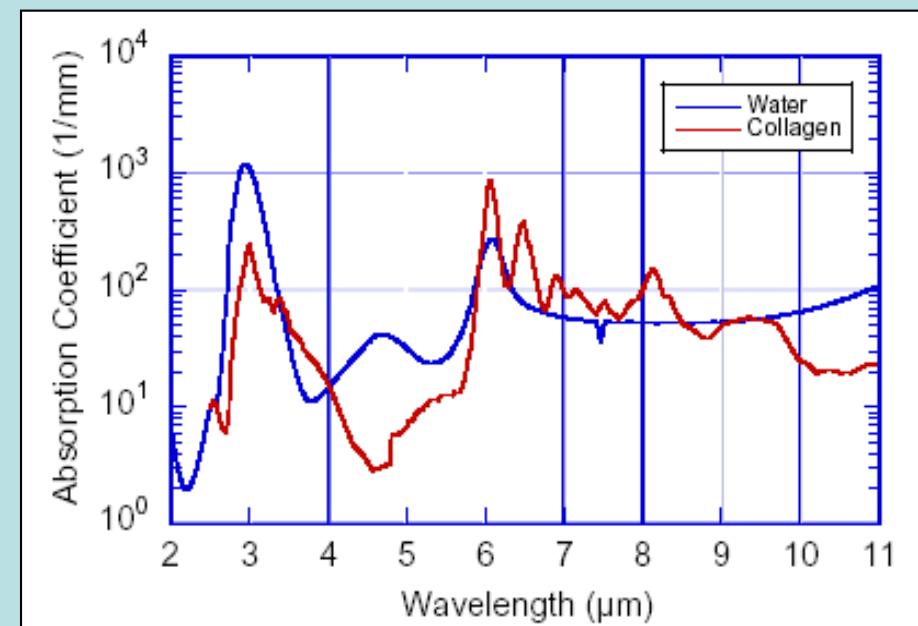
Many proteins have IR absorption peaks at 6.1, 6.45, and 8.3  $\mu\text{m}$  due to **amide** excitation

- Penetration depth  $\leq 10 \mu\text{m}$  in  $\lambda = 6 - 7 \mu\text{m}$  region

Water absorption peak at 0.96, 1.44, 1.95, 2.94 and 6.1  $\mu\text{m}$

Penetration depth

- $\sim 5 \text{ mm}$  at  $\lambda = 800 \text{ nm}$
- $< 1 \mu\text{m}$  at  $\lambda = 2.94 \mu\text{m}$
- $\leq 20 \mu\text{m}$  throughout  $\lambda \geq 6 \mu\text{m}$



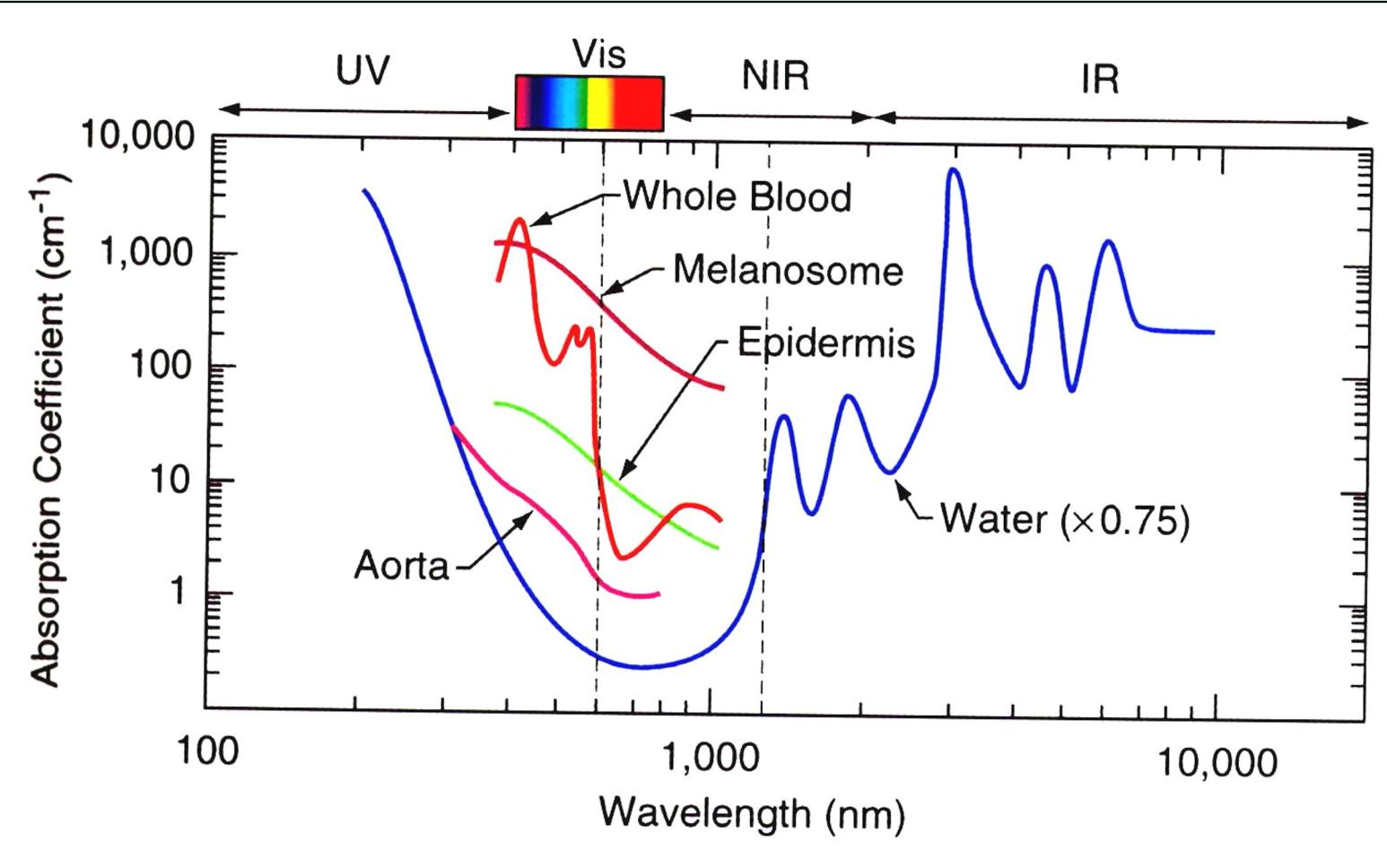
# Skin spectral reflectance in the visible and IR



# Summary - Absorber

UV	Visible & NIR	IR
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Protein</li> <li>• Amino acid</li> <li>• Fatty Acid</li> <li>• Peptide</li> <li>• DNA</li> <li>• NADH</li> <li>• FAD</li> <li>• Water</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hemoglobin</li> <li>• Lipid</li> <li>• Cytochrome a3</li> </ul> <p><u>“Therapeutic Window”</u> 600 nm ~ 1000 nm</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Water</li> <li>• Protein</li> <li>• Glucose</li> </ul>

# Optical Absorption in Tissues

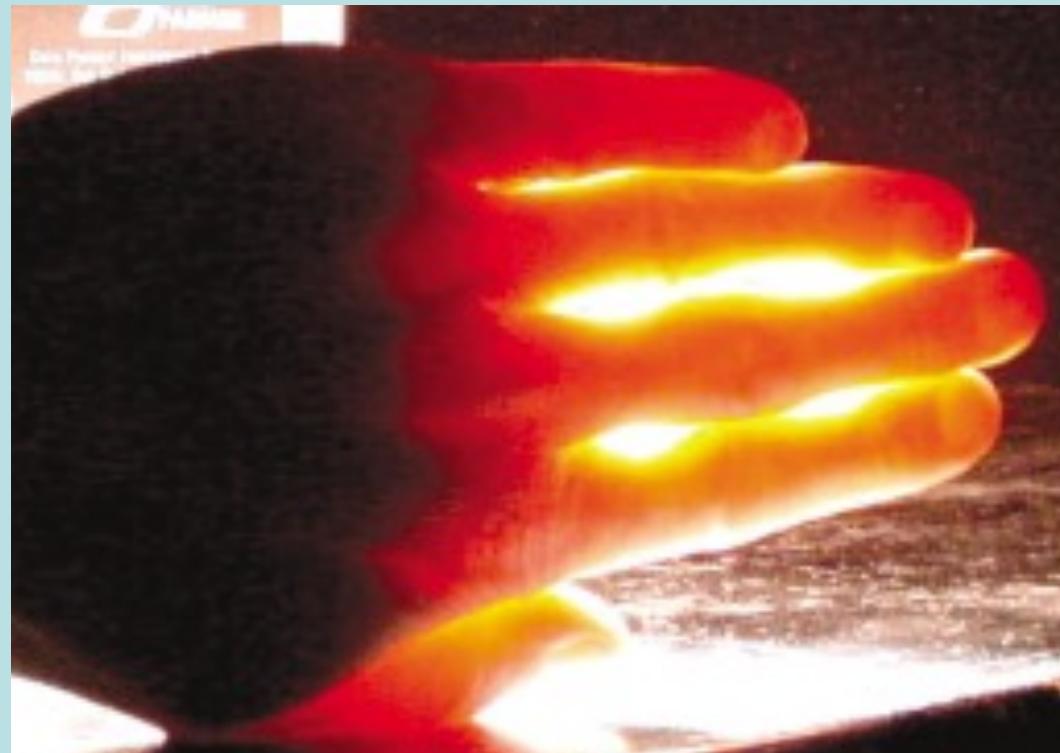


Ref: Vo-Dinh, *Biomedical Photonics Handbook*

# SCATTERING in TISSUE

# Light Propagation in Media (Tissues)

...includes Reflection, Refraction, Absorption and Scattering

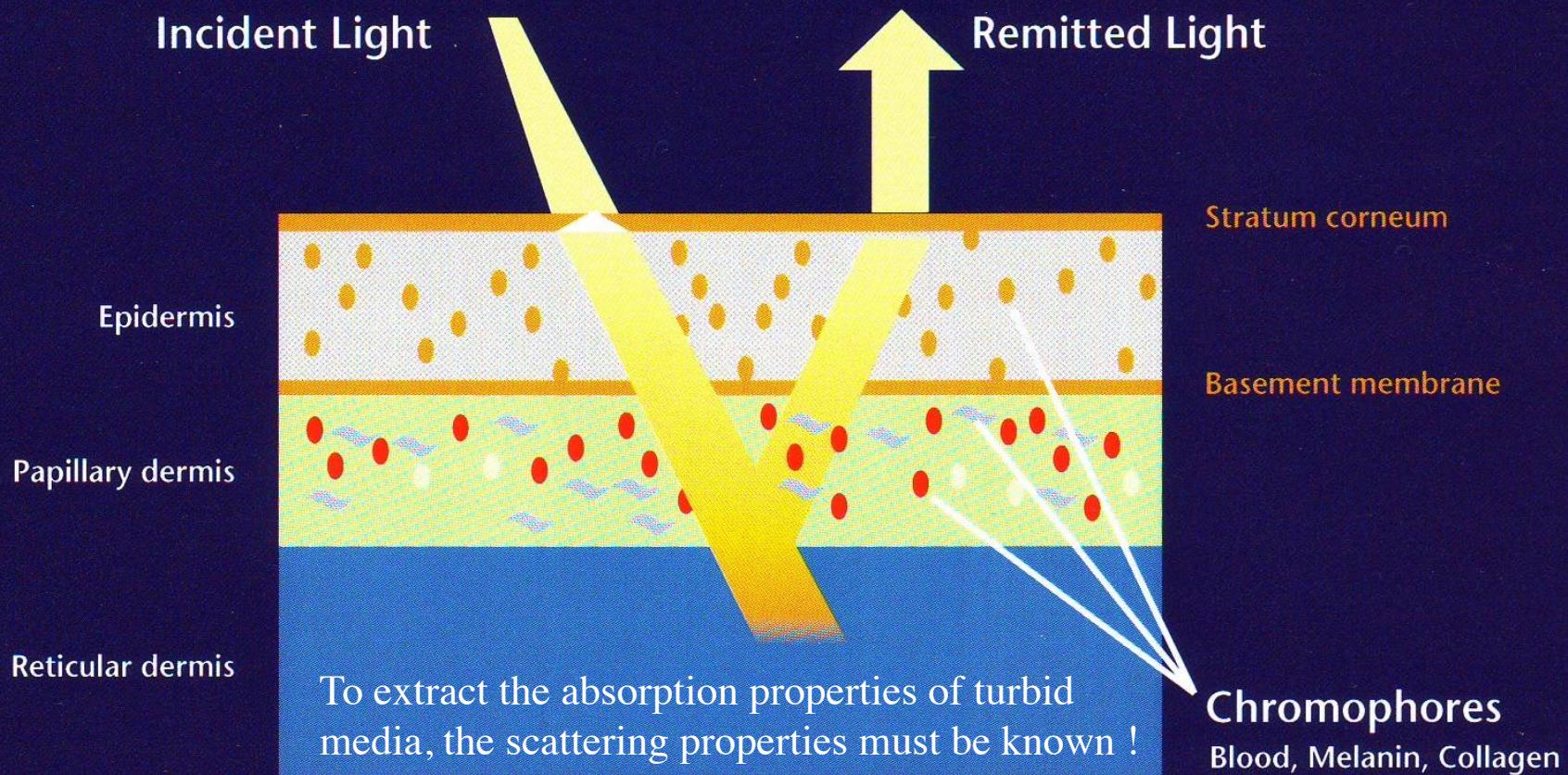


# Scattering in Tissue Optics

Mother of all confusion in tissue optics !!!

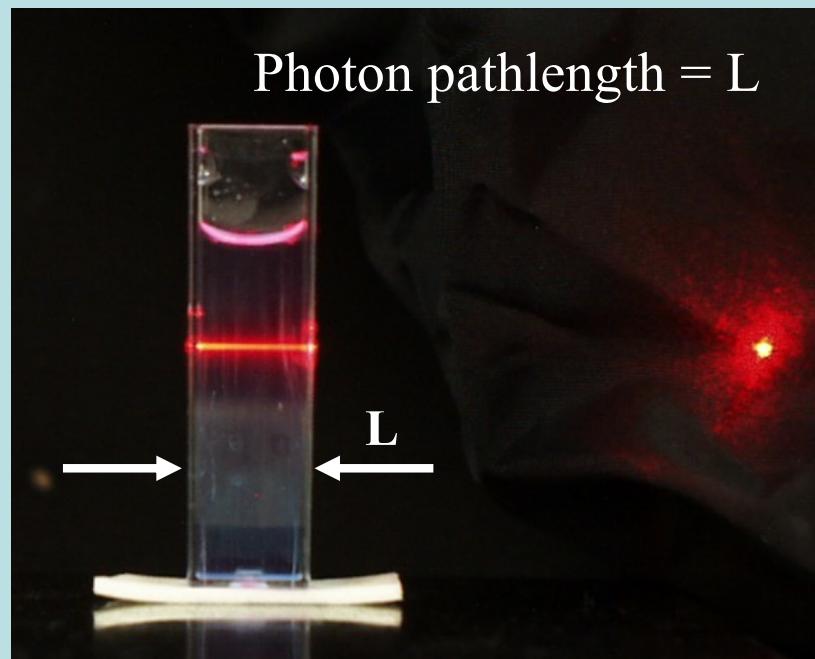
- Much more complicated than absorption
- Light is hardly observed from the source, but reaches our eyes indirectly through scattering
- Inhomogeneity causes scattering: cloud, raindrop, etc.
- Elastic (Rayleigh, Mie) or inelastic (Raman)

## The analysis of remitted light from the chromophores

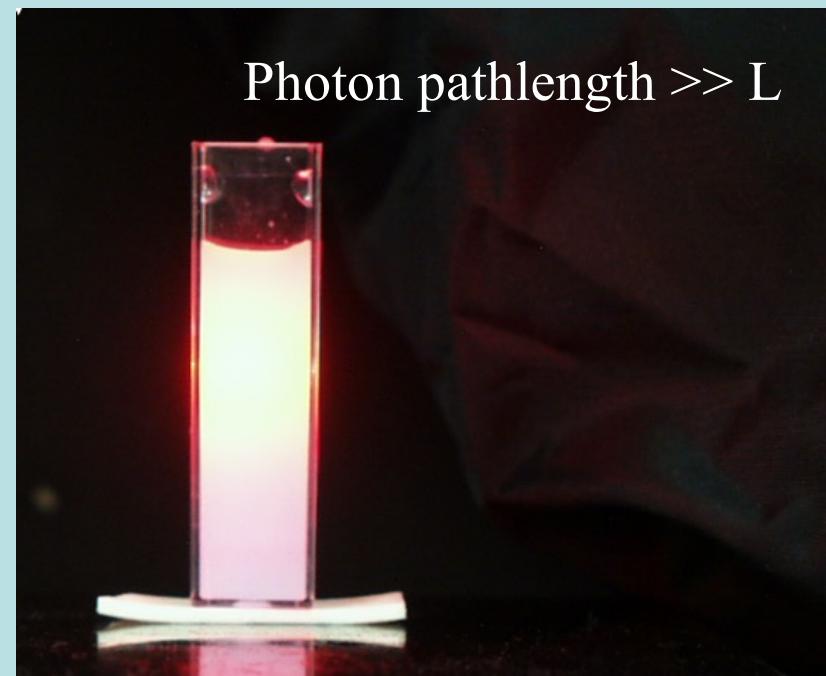


# Scattering - Example

“Purely” absorbing



With Scattering



Lambert- Beer Law does not apply here!!!  
Need to calculate true path length of light

# Some Definitions

Scattering = light is forced to deviate from a straight trajectory by one or more localized non-uniformities in the medium through which it passes.

*key word:* deviation by a non-uniformities

Diffusion = photons travelling through a material with a high optical depth and very short mean free path. Their behaviour is then dominated by scattering and the path of any given photon is effectively a random walk.

*key word:* random motion

Diffraction = Various phenomena associated with light propagation, such as the bending, spreading and interference of waves passing by an object or aperture that disrupts the wave.

# Scattering

= Deviation of light from a straight trajectory by non-uniformities in the tissue (depends on the size, morphology, and structure of the components in tissues (e.g. lipid membrane, collagen fibers, nuclei)).

## Diagnostic applications

Variations in the scatterers due to disease would affect scattering properties, thus providing a mean for diagnostic purpose

## Therapeutic applications

Scattering signals can be used to determine optimal light dosimetry and provide useful feedback during therapy

- Many spectroscopic techniques are based on scattering (Laser Doppler Perfusion, Optical Coherence Tomography, Raman Scattering Spectroscopy)
- To be able to extract the absorption properties of turbid media, the scattering properties must be known in certain cases

# Mechanism for Light Scattering

Light scattering arises from the presence of  
heterogeneities within a bulk medium

Heterogeneities result in non-uniform temporal/spatial  
distribution of refractive index in the medium

Passage of an incident EM wave sets electric charges into  
oscillatory motion and can excite vibrational modes

Scattered light is re-radiated by acceleration of these charges  
and/or relaxation of vibrational transition

- Physical inclusions
- Fluctuations in dielectric constant from random thermal motion

# Scattering

## Elastic scattering

No energy change

$$\lambda_{\text{scattered wave}} = \lambda_{\text{incident wave}}$$

Probes static structure  
of material

Rayleigh  
scattering

Mie  
scattering

## Inelastic scattering

Energy change

$$\lambda_{\text{scattered wave}} \neq \lambda_{\text{incident wave}}$$

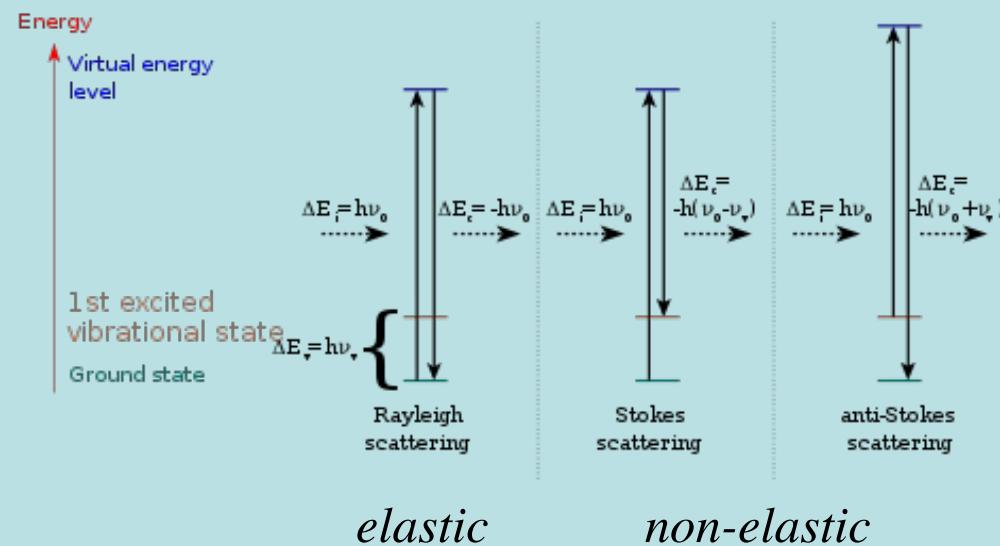
Internal energy levels of atoms  
and molecules are excited

Probes vibrational bonds  
of the molecule

Raman scattering

# Mechanism of Raman scattering

The energy diagram of a molecule showing the origin of Raman scattering



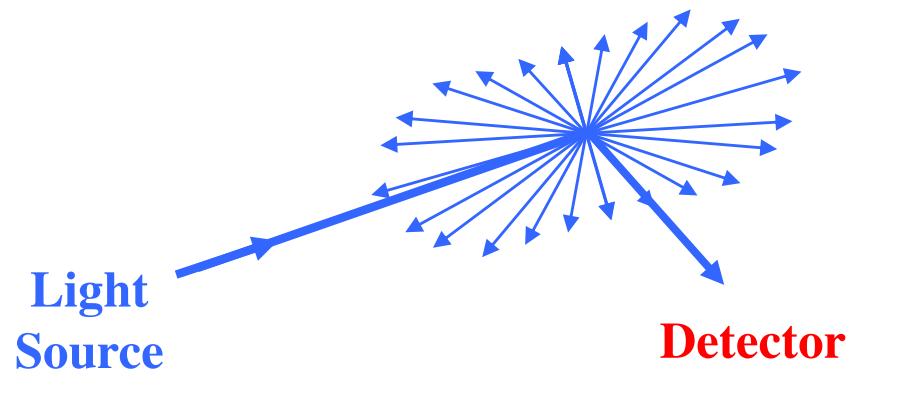
- Inelastic scattering
- Photon is considered to undergo absorption and subsequent emission via an virtual electron state  
(virtual means that the molecule is momentarily elevated to a higher energy level but it never reaches an electronic excited state.)

scattered photons have energies  $E = h(\nu_0 \pm \nu_v)$   
+:Stokes line; -: Anti-Stokes line

# Elastic Scattering

- Photons are mostly scattered by the structure whose size matches the wavelength
- Principal parameters that affect scattering
  - Wavelength
  - Relative refractive index
  - Particle radius
  - Shape and orientation

# Rayleigh Scattering



$$I = I_0 \frac{8\pi^4 N \alpha^2}{\lambda^4 R^2} (1 + \cos^2 \theta)$$

$N$  = number of scatterers

$\alpha$  = polarizability

$R$  = distance from scatterer

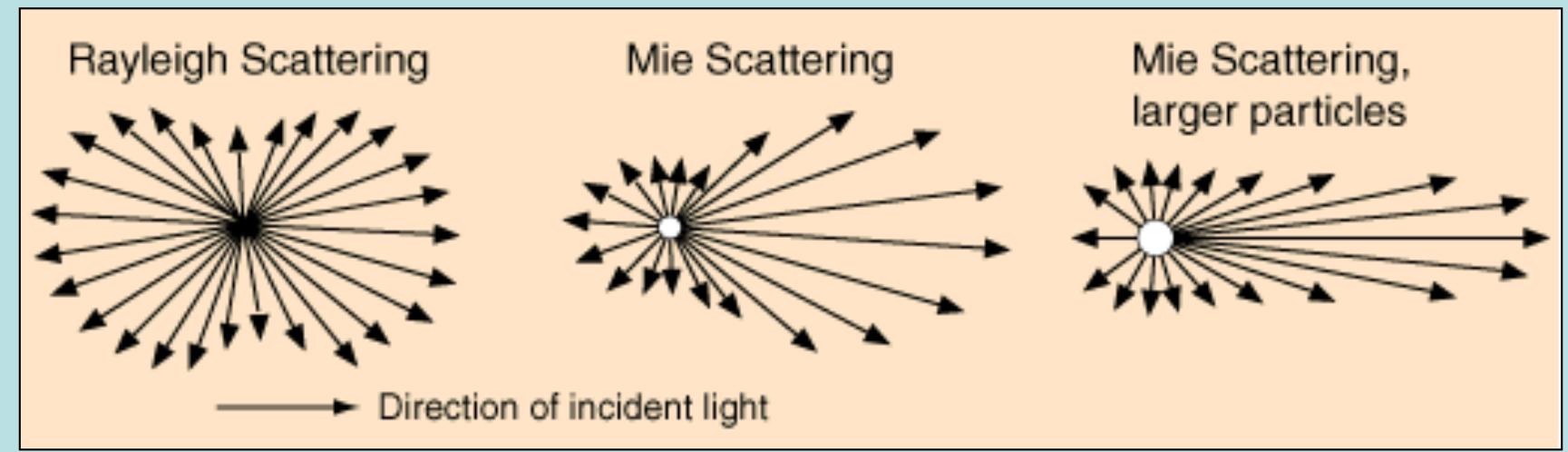
Properties of Rayleigh scattering:

- Scattering from very small particles  $\rightarrow \leq \lambda/10$
- Scattering at right angles is half the forward intensity
- The strong wavelength dependence enhances the short wavelengths  
(Rayleigh scattering is inversely related to the fourth power of the wavelength of the incident light)

$$I \propto \frac{1}{\lambda^4}$$

# Mie Scattering

- Scattering of particles comparable or larger than the wavelength, Mie scattering predominates
- Because of the relative particle size, Mie scattering is poorly wavelength dependent
- Forward directional scattering

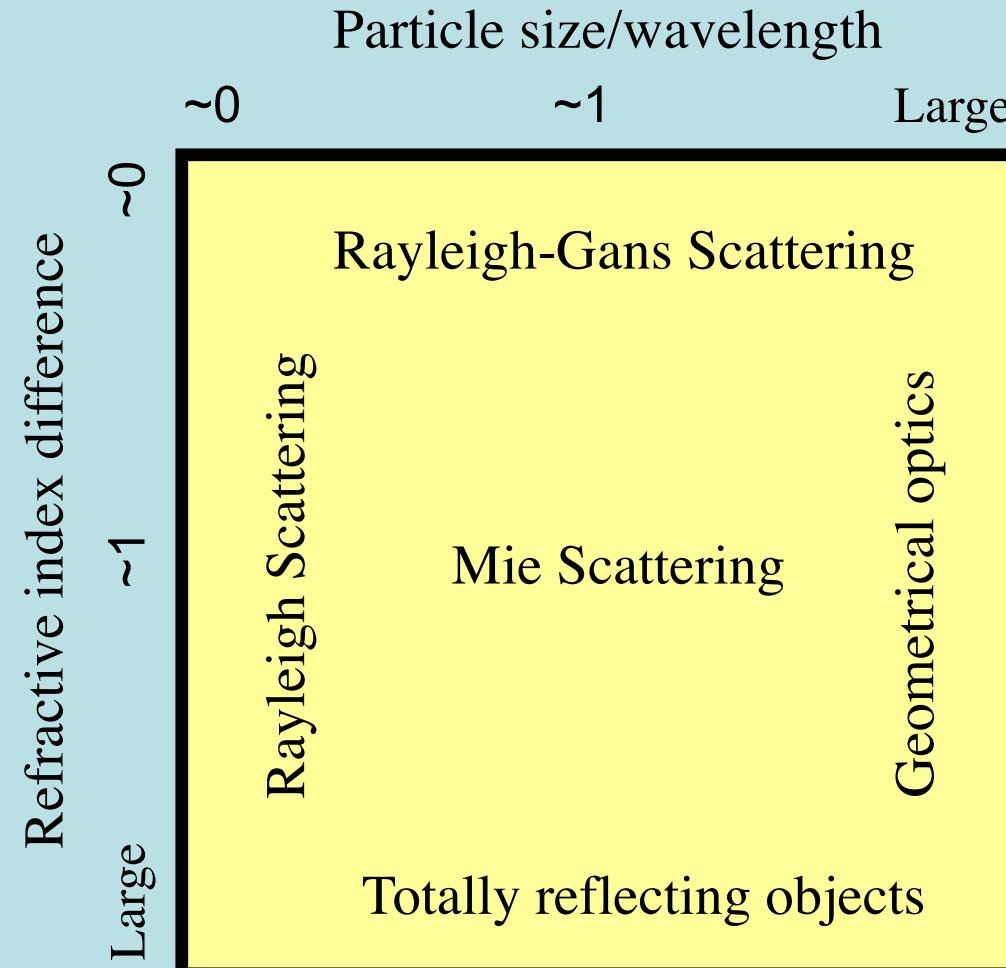


# Scattering – Blue sky revisited



- Blue skies are produced due to scattering at shorter wavelengths
- Visible light (violet & blue) are selectively scattered by  $O_2$  and  $N_2$  – much smaller than wavelengths of the light
- Violet and blue light has been scattered over and over again
- Mie scattering is **poorly wavelength dependent** – appears white
- When light encounters larger particles (cloud, fog, cigarette smoke), Mie scattering occurs

# Electromagnetic Scattering



# “General” dependences of Scattering

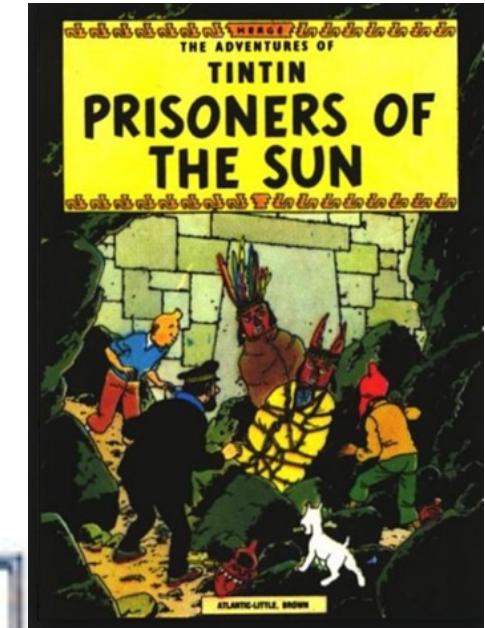
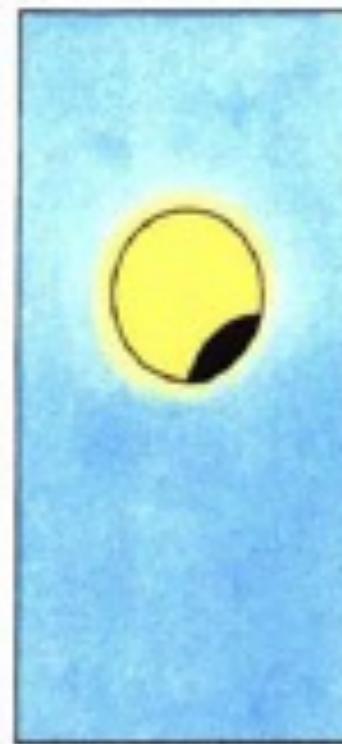
- Scattering **decreases** monotonically with increasing wavelength
- Scattering coefficient **increases** with increasing diameter of the scatterer
- Scattering coefficient **increases** with refractive index mismatch

# Machu Picchu





# Machu Picchu



# Machu Picchu



# Machu Picchu



Nice weather



Bad weather

# Scattering of the atmosphere



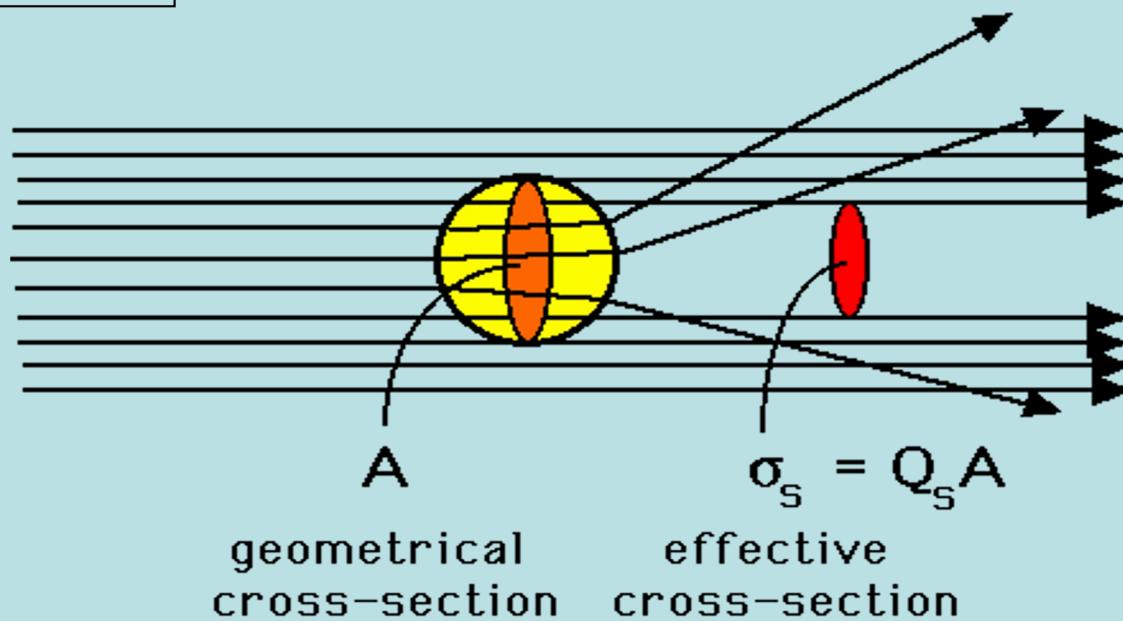
# Metrics for Optical Scattering

Scattering Cross Section  $\sigma_s$  [cm<sup>2</sup>]  
for a single scatterer

$$\sigma_s = Q_s \cdot A_s$$

$Q_s$  = scattering efficiency  
(can be calculated  
from Mie theory)

$A_s$  = the area of the  
scatterer (cm<sup>2</sup>)



# Metrics for Optical Scattering

Scattering Coefficient  $\mu_s$  [m<sup>-1</sup>]

- Cross-sectional area for scattering per unit volume of medium

$$\mu_s = N_s \sigma_s$$

$N_s$  = the number density of scatterers

$\sigma_s$  = scattering cross-section

Scattering Mean Free Path  $l_s$  [m]

- Average distance a photon travels between scattering events

$$l_s = \frac{1}{\mu_s}$$

Note!

$l_s$  is sometimes also written as  
mfp = mean free path

# Direction of Scattering

	Mie Scattering	Rayleigh scattering
Wavelength dependence	$\sim \lambda^{-x}$ , x is “small” (0.5)	$\sim \lambda^{-4}$
Direction	preferably forward	forward and backward (proportional to $[1+\cos^2(\theta)]$ )

## Biological tissue:

- preferably forward directed scattering
- wavelength dependence stronger than for Mie scattering

Neither Rayleigh nor Mie theory completely describe scattering in biological tissue!

Define probability function  $p(\theta)$  of a photon to be scattered

# Scattering Phase Function

Differential scattering cross section:

scattering in direction  $s'$  from input direction  $s$

- *The probability to observe a scattered particle in a given state per solid angle unit if the target is irradiated by a flux of one particle per surface unit*

$$\frac{d\sigma_s}{d\Omega}(\hat{s}, \hat{s}')$$

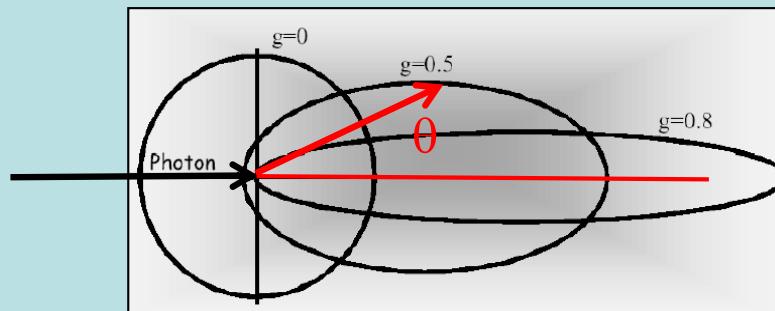
Often only depends on angle between input and output then:

- The angular dependence of scattering is called the scattering probability function  $p(\theta)$

# Scattering Phase Function

$p(\theta)$  often only depends on angle between input and output!

- $p(\theta)$  describes the probability of a photon to be scattered into a unit solid angle, relative to the original photon trajectory
- The angular dependence of scattering  $p(\theta)$  has historically been called the **scattering phase function**



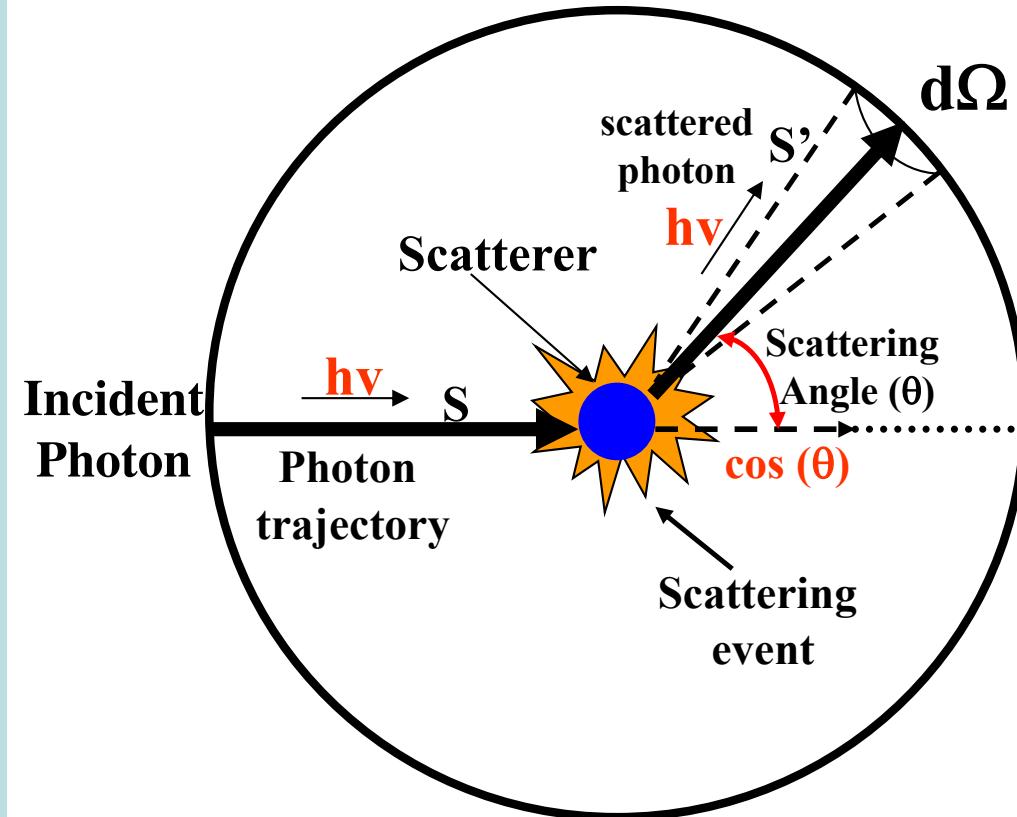
# Scattering Anisotropy $g$

- Imagine that a photon is scattered by a particle so that its trajectory is deflected by an angle  $\theta$
- Then, the component of the new trajectory along the forward direction is  $\cos(\theta)$

Average  $\cos(\theta)$ :

Forward scattering 0...1

Backward scattering -1...0



The anisotropy

$$g = \langle \cos(\theta) \rangle$$

is a measure of the forward direction retained after a single scattering event

# Scattering Anisotropy

The proper definition of anisotropy ( $g$ ) is the expectation value for  $\cos(\theta)$ :

"Effectiveness of Scattering"

$$g \equiv \frac{\int p(\hat{s} \cdot \hat{s}') \hat{s} \cdot \hat{s}' d\Omega}{\int p(\hat{s} \cdot \hat{s}') d\Omega}$$

If  $p$  only depends on the angle between input and output

$$g = \langle \cos \theta \rangle = \int_0^\pi p(\theta) \cos \theta \cdot 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$\text{where, } \int_0^\pi p(\theta) \cdot 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta = 1$$

Sometimes also written in terms of  $\cos(\theta)$ :

$$= \int_{-1}^1 p(\cos \theta) \cos \theta d(\cos \theta)$$

$$\text{where, } \int_{-1}^1 p(\cos \theta) d(\cos \theta) = 1$$

# Anisotropy factor g

$$g = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{totally backward scattering} \\ 0 & \text{isotropic scattering} \\ 1 & \text{totally forward scattering} \end{cases}$$

Biological Tissues,  $0.65 < g < 0.95$

# Isotropic Phase Function

**Isotropic** scattering: scattering of light at equal efficiency into all possible directions

The phase function is

$$p(\theta) = \frac{1}{4\pi}$$

The phase function for isotropic scattering  
is **independent** of  $\theta$  !

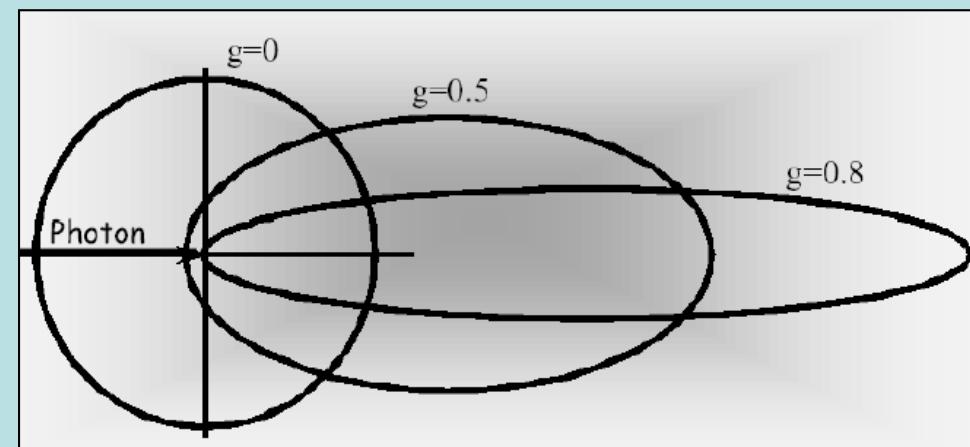
# Heyney Greenstein phase function

The Heyney Greenstein scattering phase function is an analytical expression which mimics the angular dependence of light scattering

$$p(\theta) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{1 - g^2}{(1 + g^2 - 2g \cos \theta)^{3/2}}$$

where  $\int_0^\pi p(\theta) 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta = 1$   
 and  $\int_0^\pi p(\theta) \cos \theta 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta = g$

Probability distribution of scattered photon for  $g = 0, 0.5$  and  $0.8$

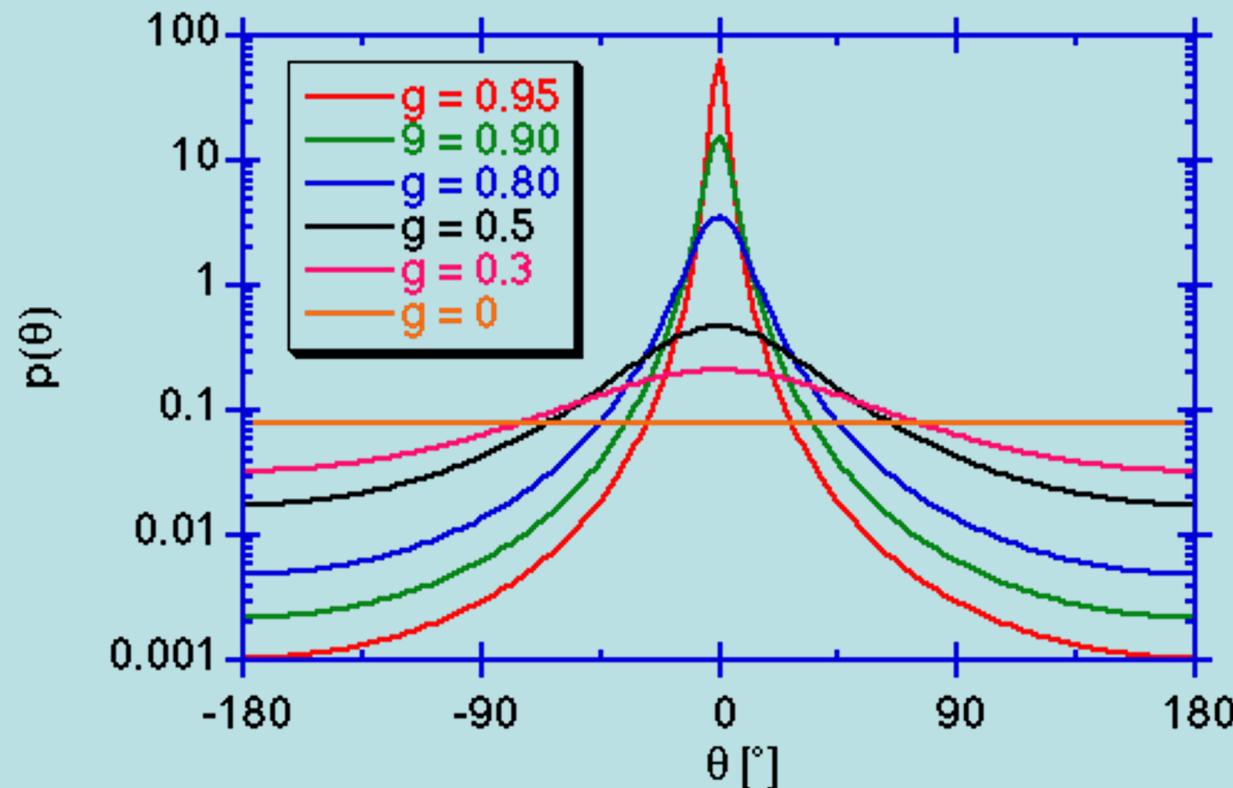


# Henyey Greenstein Approximation

The function allows the anisotropy factor,  $g$ , to specify  $p(\theta)$  such that  $\langle \cos(\theta) \rangle$  returns to the same value of  $g$ .

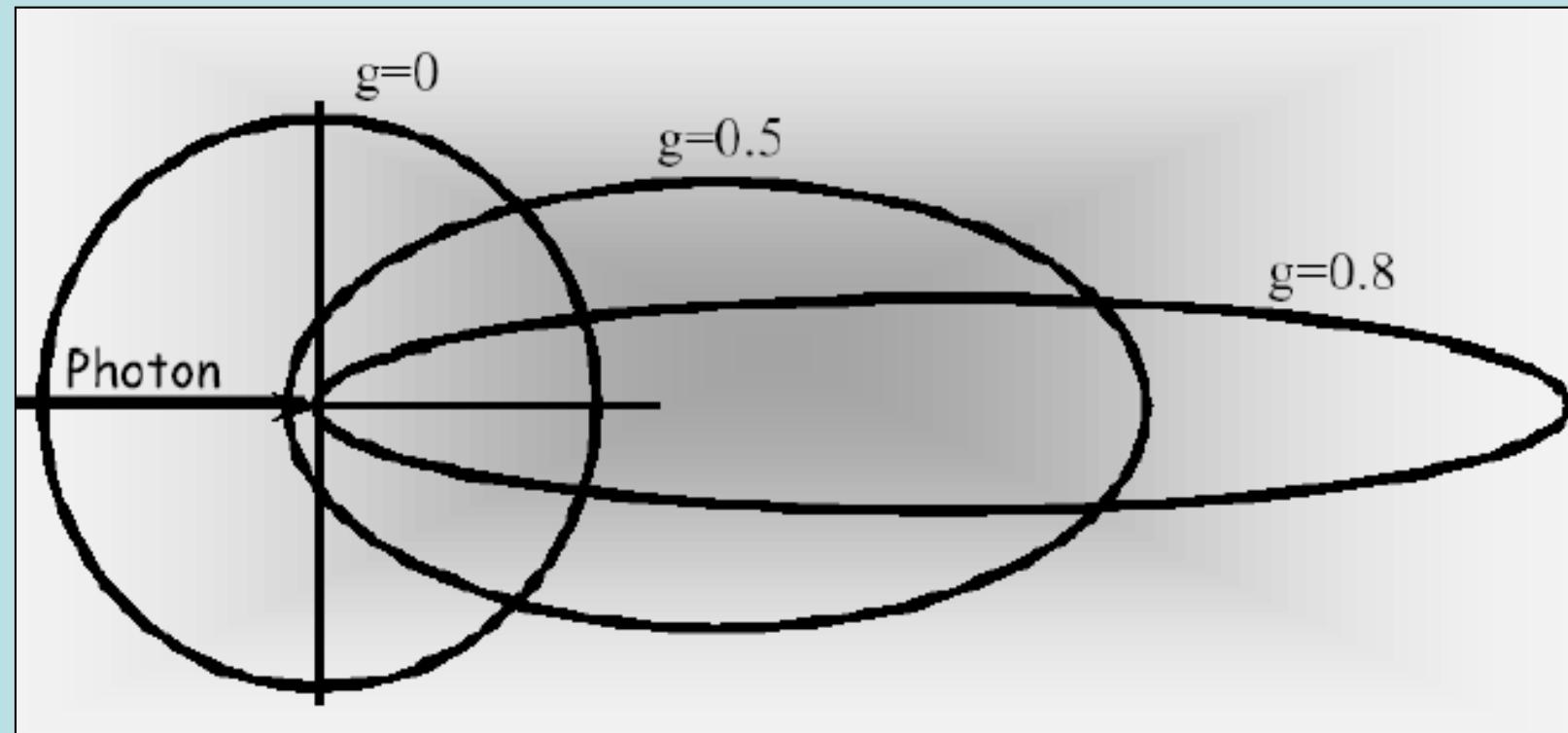
The function does not represent true scattering phase functions very well, but it is a **good average** approximation for biological tissues.

# Example: Heyney Greenstein



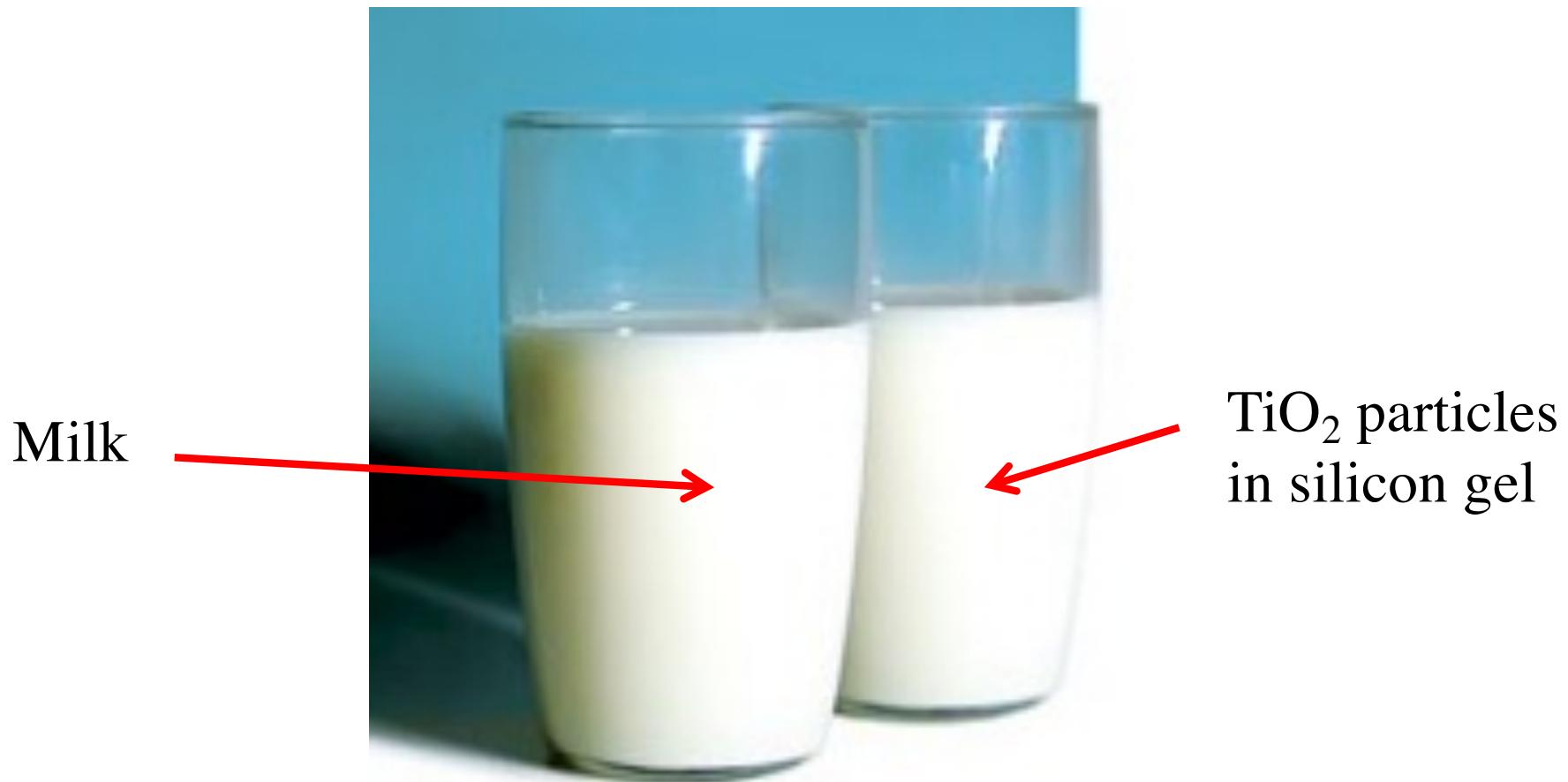
# Heyney Greenstein phase function

Probability distribution of scattered photon for  $g=0, 0.5$  and  $0.8$



Two solutions with identical macroscopic scattering properties can differ at a microscopic level!

$\mu_s$  and  $g$  are different but the macroscopic aspects are the same!



# Metrics for Optical Scattering

Reduced Scattering Coefficient  $\mu_s'$  [cm<sup>-1</sup>]

- incorporates the scattering coefficient and the anisotropy factor

$$\mu_s' = \mu_s(1 - g)$$

$\mu_s$  is the scattering coefficient [cm<sup>-1</sup>]  
 $g$  the anisotropy factor

- $\mu_s'$  can be regarded as an effective isotropic scattering coefficient that represents the **cumulative effect of several forward-scattering events**
- Special significant with respect to **photon diffusion theory**

# Metrics for Optical Scattering

Reduced mean free path  $mfp'$  [m]

$$mfp' = \frac{1}{\mu_s'}$$

- purpose of the reduced scattering coefficient:  
to describe the diffusion of photons (**isotropic** scattering)  
in a random walk of step size  $(1/ \mu_s')$
- Such a description is equivalent to the description of photon movement using many small mean free paths,  $1/ \mu_s'$ , that each involve only a partial deflection angle,  $\theta$  (**anisotropic** scattering)

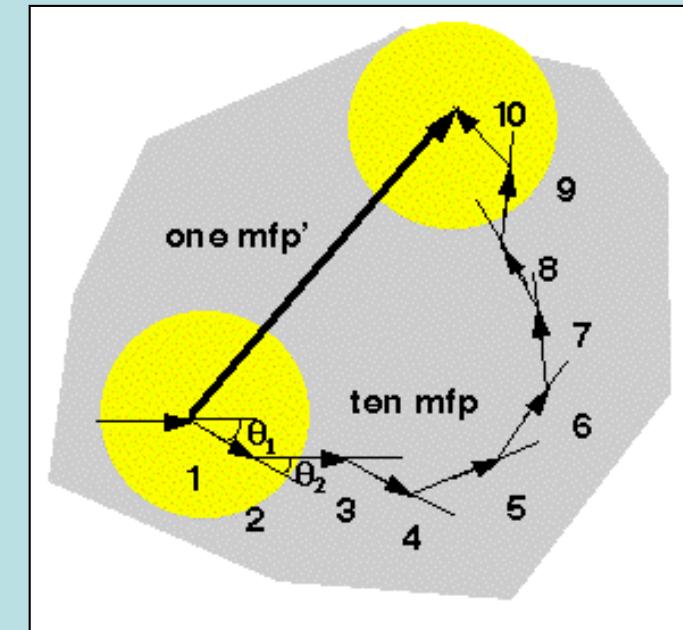
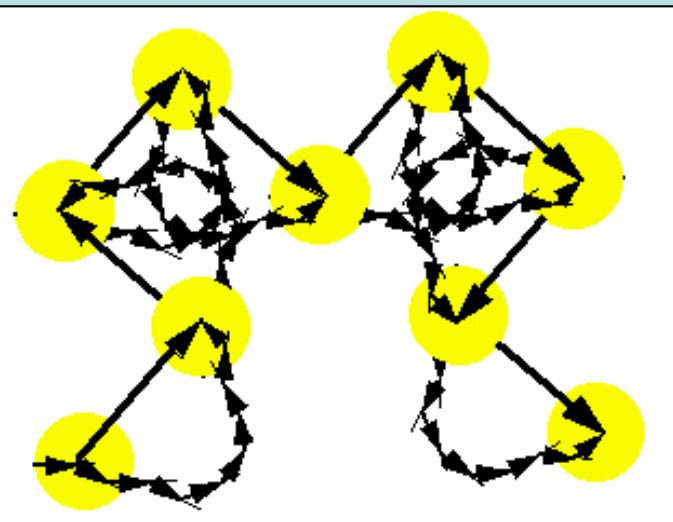
# Reduced Scattering Coefficient

Useful for description of photon propagation in diffuse regime

Example:  $g = \langle \cos \theta \rangle = 0.90 \Rightarrow \langle \theta \rangle \approx 26^\circ$

$$\mu_s' = (1 - g)\mu_s = 0.10\mu_s$$

$$mfp = \frac{1}{\mu_s} \quad mfp' = \frac{1}{\mu_s'}$$



Each step involves isotropic scattering.

Such a description is equivalent to description of photon movement using many small steps  $1/\mu_s$  that each involve only a partial deflection angle

1 iso-scattering step =  $1/(1-g)$  aniso-scattering steps

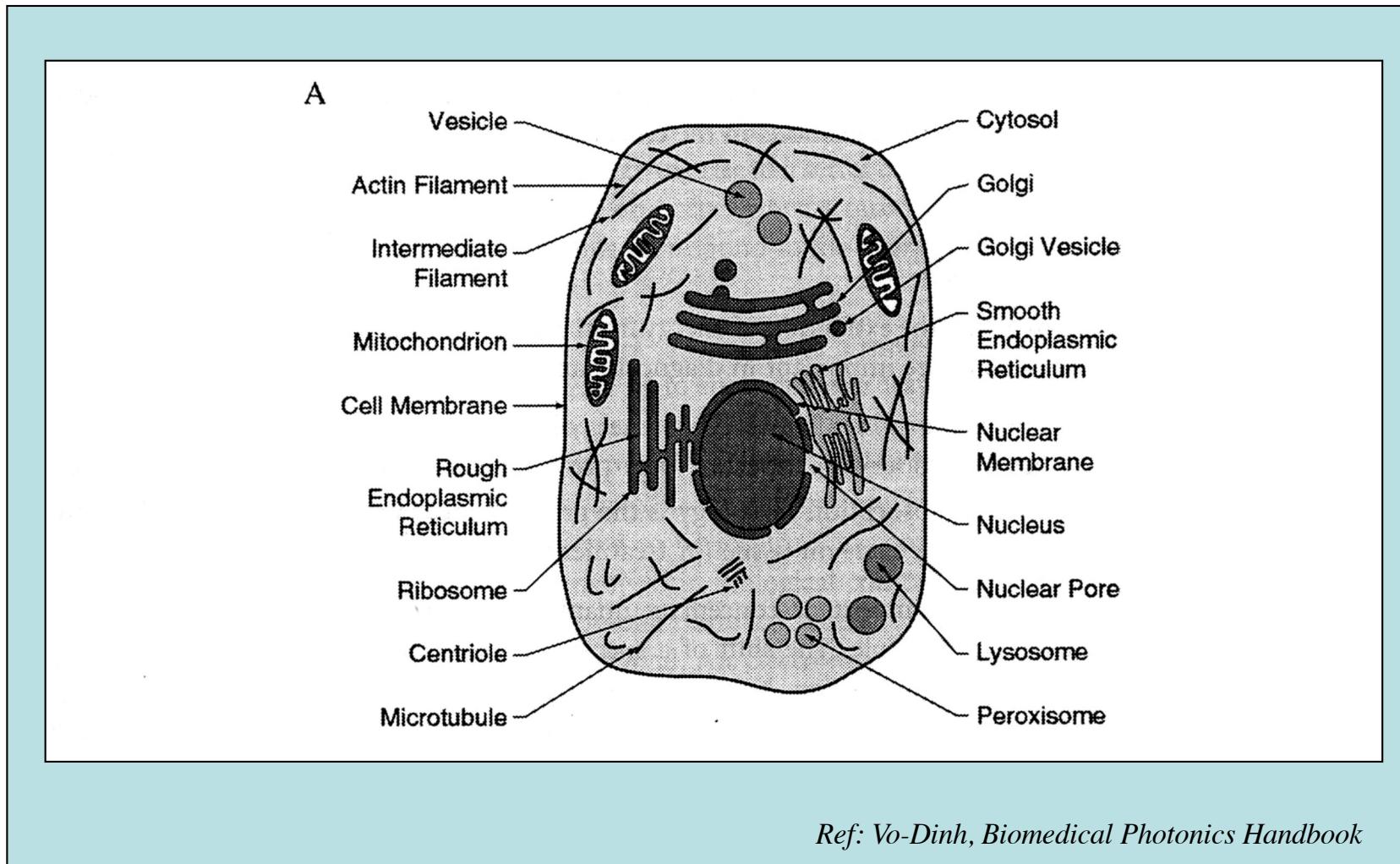
# Source of Scattering in Tissue

- Refractive index mismatch between lipid and surrounding aqueous medium
  - Light scattering in many soft tissues is dominated by lipid contents
  - Cellular membranes, membrane folds, and membranous structure
- Mitochondria,  $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ 
  - Intracellular organelle composed of many folded membrane
- Collagen fibers' diameter,  $2 \sim 3 \mu\text{m}$ 
  - Collagen fibrils,  $0.3 \mu\text{m}$   
(Periodic fluctuation in collagen ultrastructure)  
→ source of Rayleigh scattering in UV and Visible range
- Cells

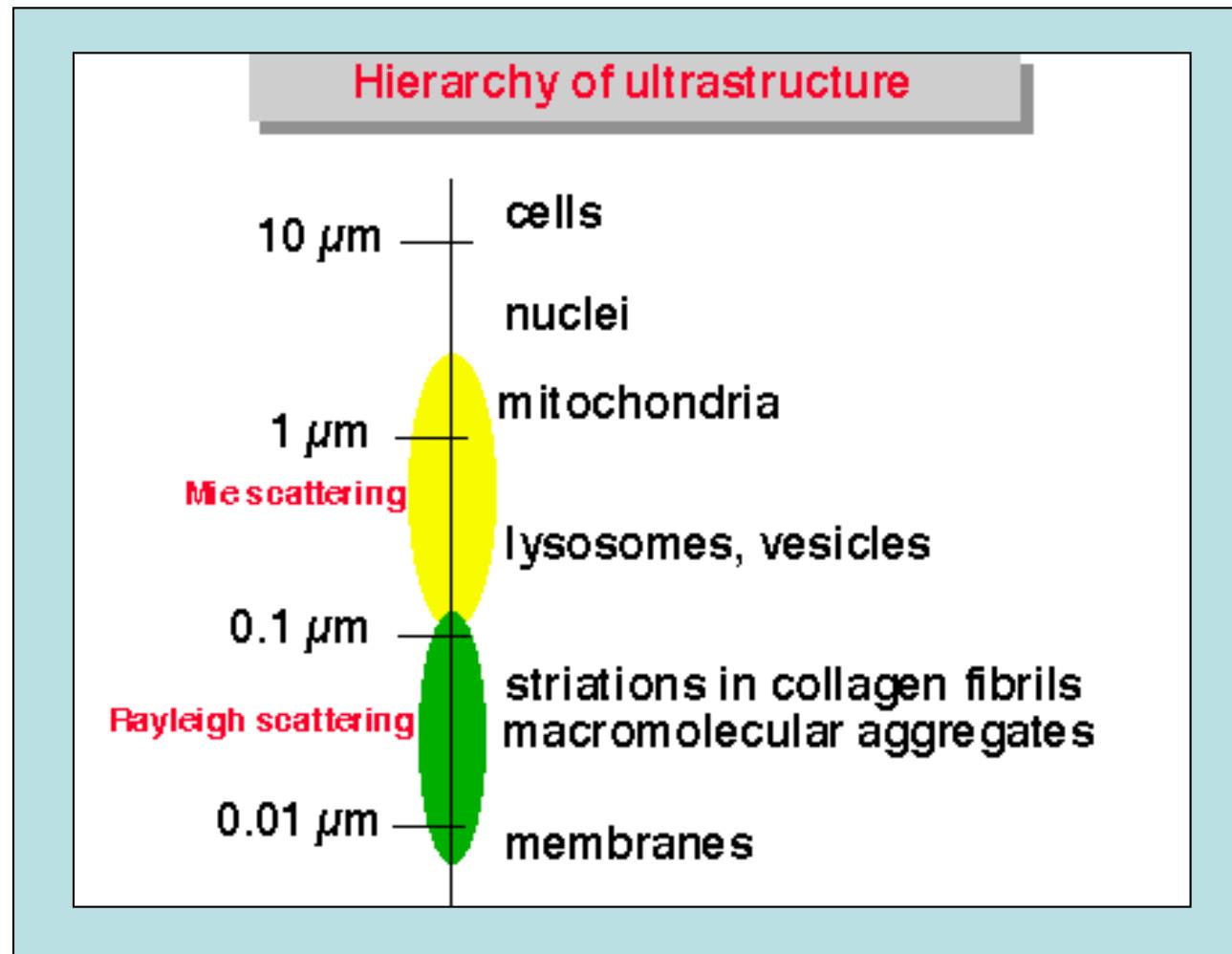
# Biological scatterers in skin

- Stratum corneum
  - Flat cells 0,6 - 0,8  $\mu\text{m}$  thick
  - Visible range scattering.
- Epidermis
  - Melanin granules: 0,3 - 0,8  $\mu\text{m}$
  - Visible range scattering
- Dermis
  - Collagen fibrils: 20 - 100 nm
  - Rayleigh scattering
- Blood
  - Erythrocytes (7 - 8  $\mu\text{m}$ );
  - leucocytes (9 - 40  $\mu\text{m}$ );
  - platelets (1 - 3  $\mu\text{m}$ )
  - Strong anisotropic scattering  $g > 0,95$ ;  $\mu_s > 50 \text{ mm}^{-1}$

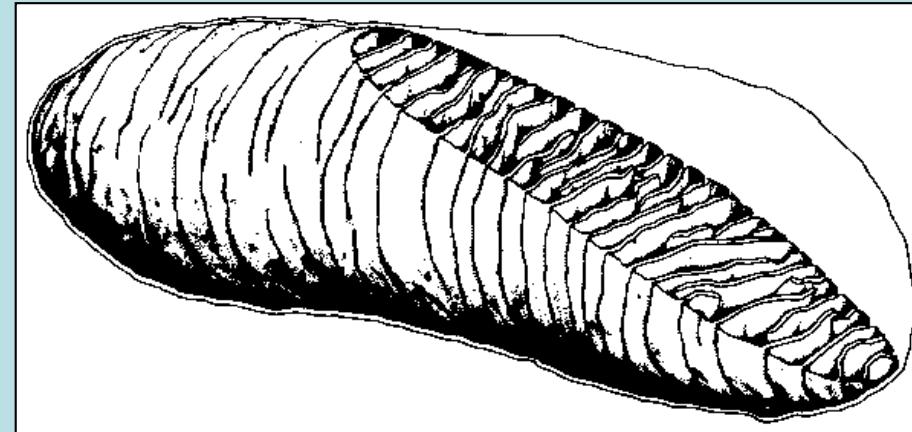
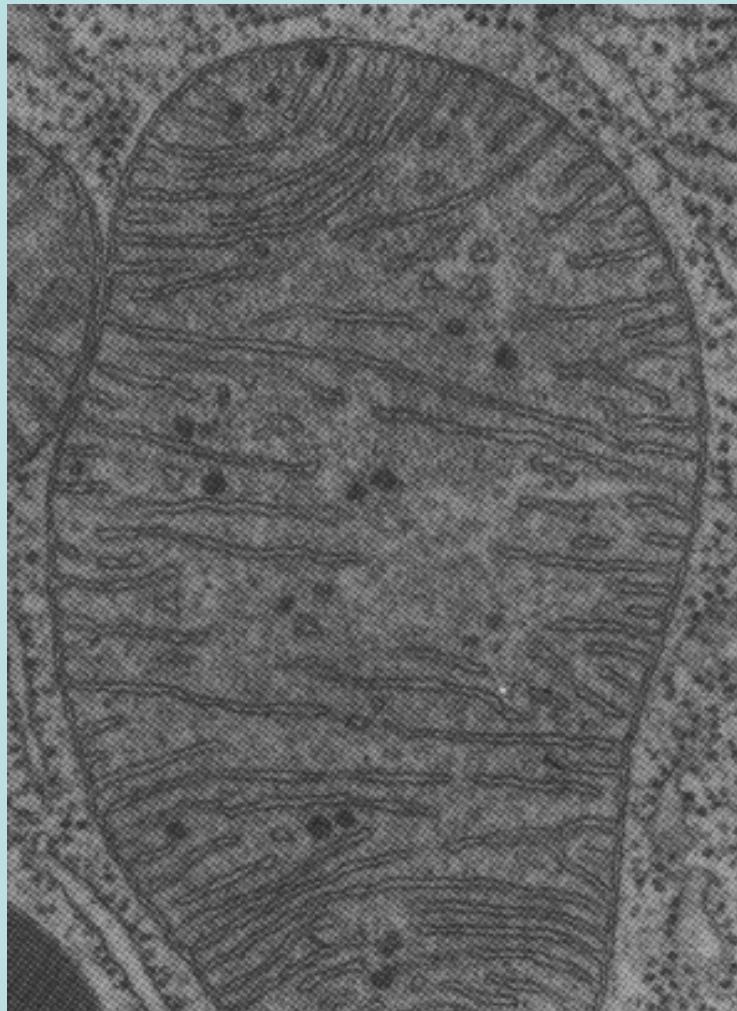
# Sources of Scattering in Cells and Tissues



# Elastic Scattering: Biological Scatterers

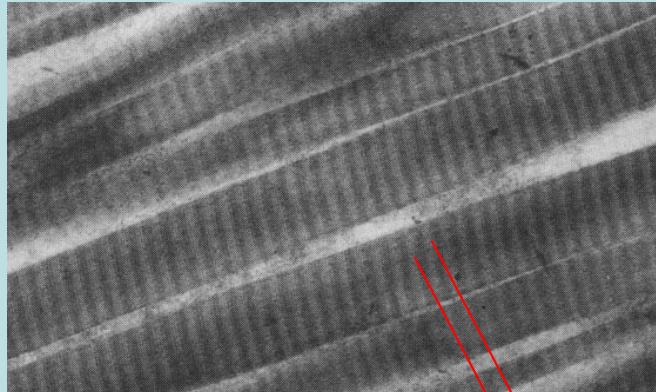


# Mitochondria



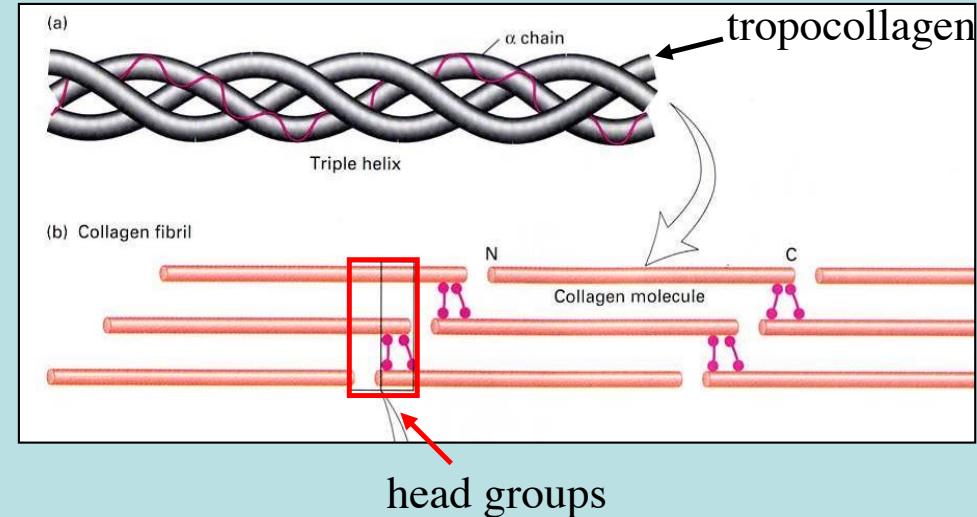
- 1  $\mu\text{m}$  in size, folded lipid membranes, membranes 9 nm thick
- contains metabolic cofactors NAD, FAD used for proton pump over membrane to generate ATP
- Refractive index mismatch between lipid and water causes scattering

# Collagen fibers and fibrils



(electron micrograph)

67 nm



Fibers: 2-3  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter;  
composed of smaller fibrils ( $d = 4 \text{ nm}$ ;  $l = 300 \text{ nm}$ )

Fibrils: composed of tropocollagen molecules, have banded pattern (67 nm period), optical “crystal” 2<sup>nd</sup> harmonic generators, periodic structure contributes to...

- Cross Links, hydroxylysine pyridinoline and lysyl perydinoline are fluorescent

strong Mie scattering  
Rayleigh scattering  
(visible and UV range)

# Biological Example: Soft Tissue (1)

- Scattering in most soft tissues is dominated by lipid content
- The lipids constitute the cellular membranes, membrane folds and membranous structures
- The lipid / water interface of membranes presents a strong refractive index mismatch and so plays a major role in scattering

Lipid membrane of cells:  $n = 1.46$

Cytosol of cells:  $n = 1.35$

# Biological Example: Soft Tissue (2)

## Selection of parameters

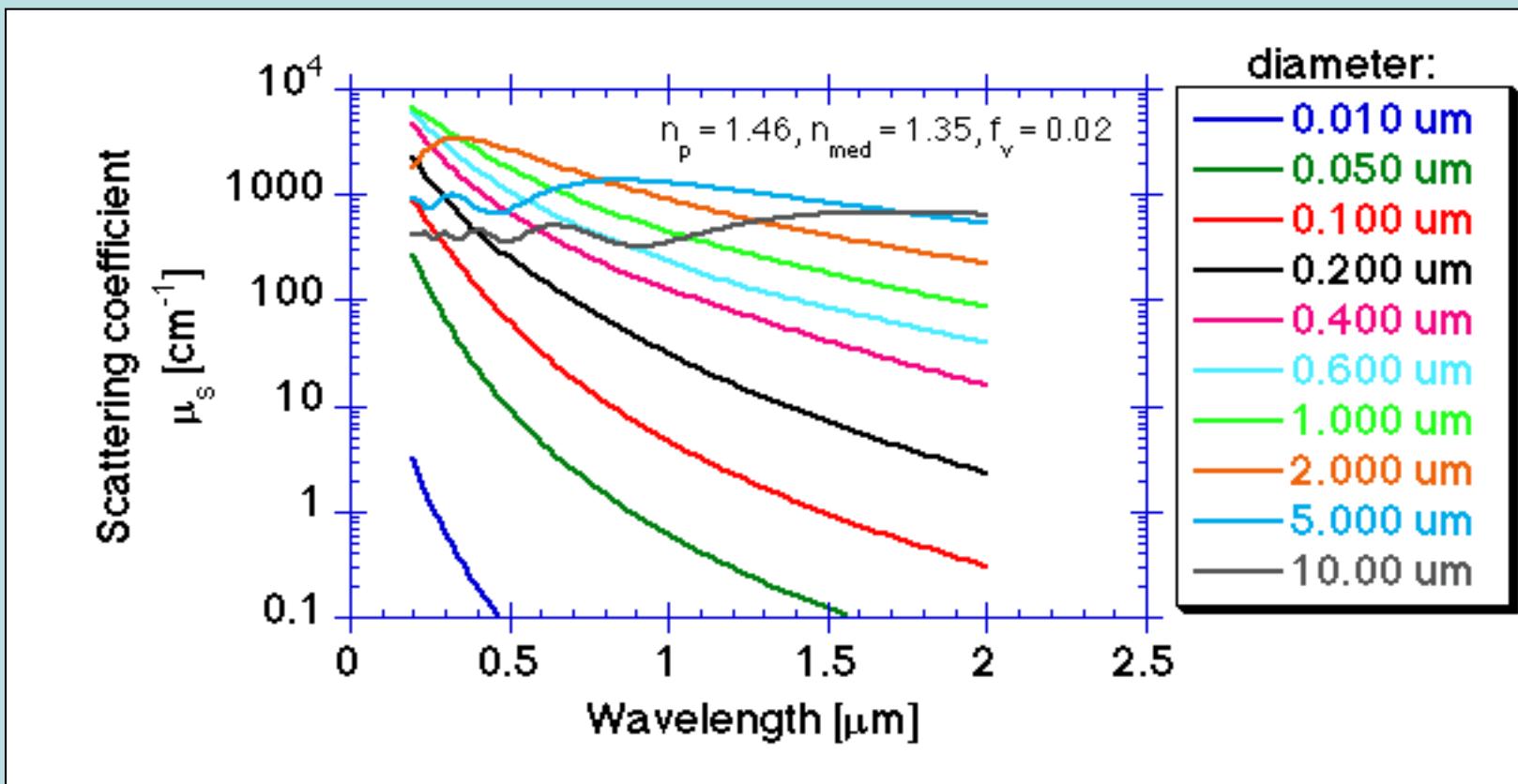
- Assume the lipid is packaged as small spheres of various sizes whose number density maintains a constant **volume fraction**,  $f_v$  (the proportion of the volume occupied by the scatterers's matter).  
Assume lipid content is  $f_v = 2\%$
- The **volume density** (the number of spheres per volume unit),  $\rho_s$  is as follows (where  $a$  is the radius):

$$\rho_s = \frac{f_v}{(4/3)\pi a^3}$$

# Biological Example: Soft Tissue (3)

Scattering coefficient computed for the soft tissue model for different diameters of "lipid spheres"

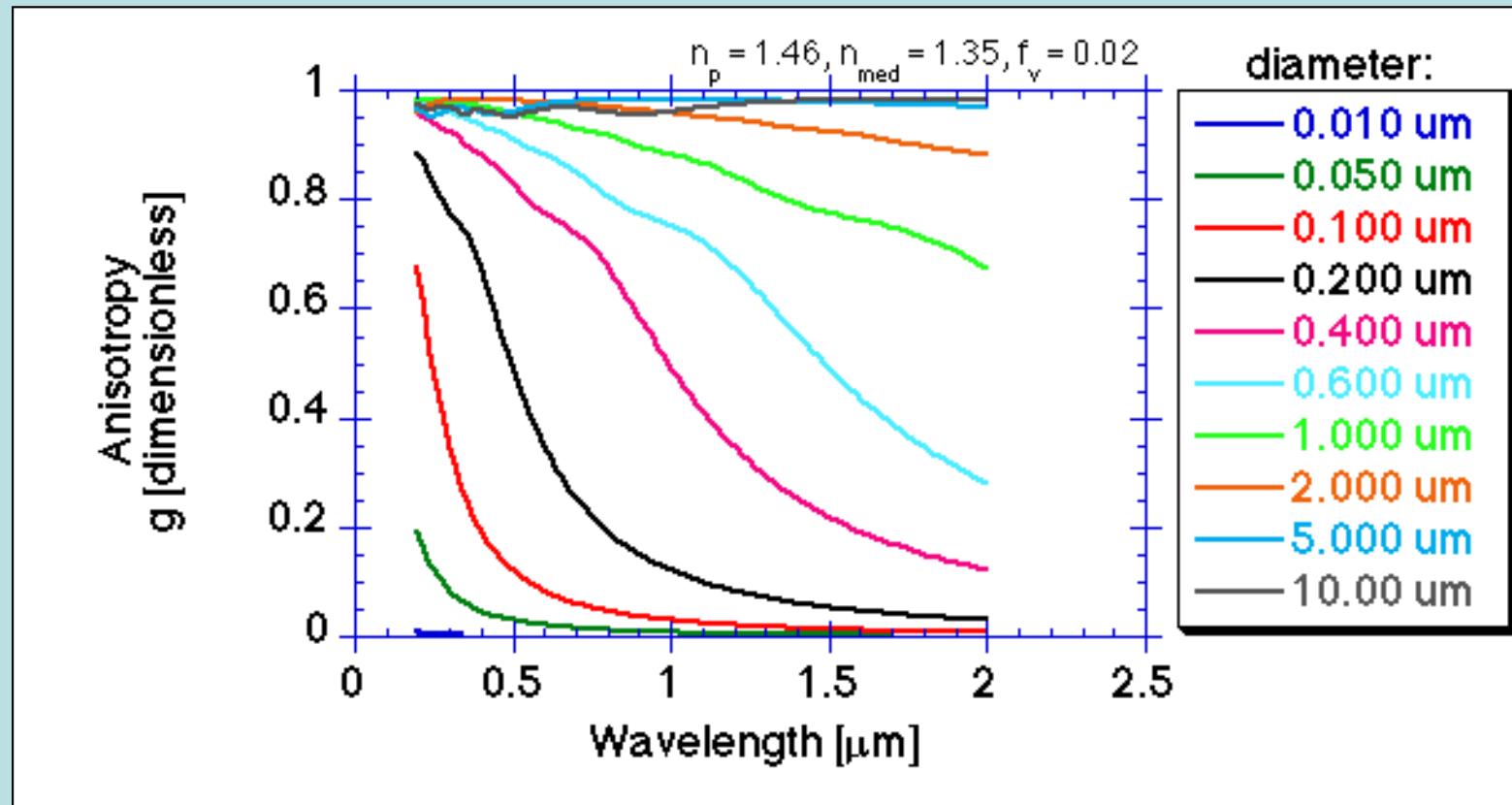
$n_p$  = refraction index lipid (protein),  $n_{med}$  = refraction index cell (medium)



# Biological Example: Soft Tissue (4)

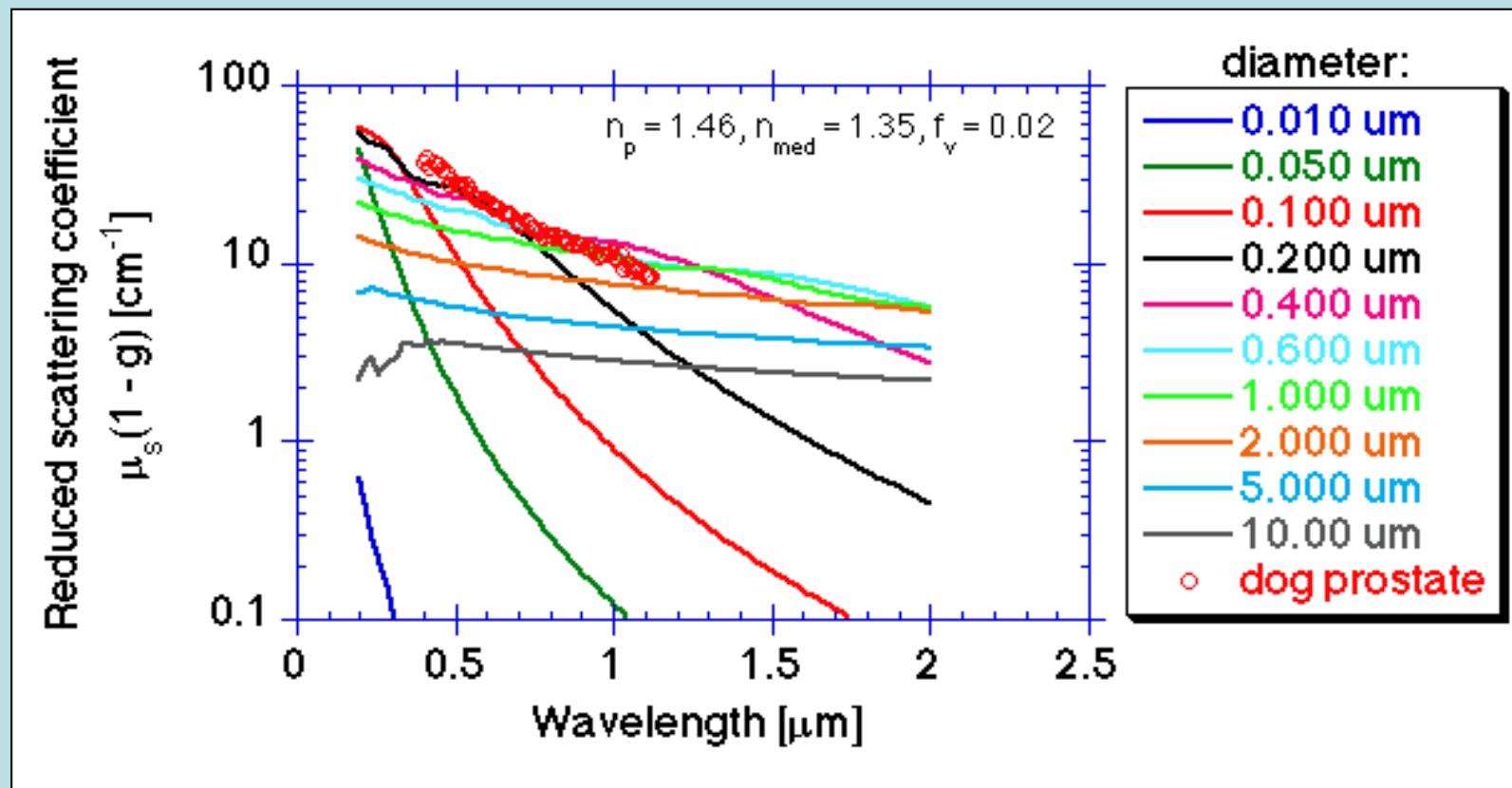
Anisotropy factor  $g$  for different diameters of "lipid spheres"

$g = 0 \rightarrow$  isotropic;  $g = 1 \rightarrow$  forward peaked.



# Biological Example: Soft Tissue (5)

Reduced Scattering coefficient for different diameters of lipid spheres in the range of 200 - 600 nm



# Biological Example: Skin/ Collagen (1)

## Skin (parameters drawn from the literature)

- Dermis of Skin and sclera of eye are highly scattering and have high collagen content
- **Macroscopic Level:** banded structure between tropocollagen fibrils. 0.3 micron fibrils – 8 micron fibers
- Fiber diameter:  $2.8 \pm 0.08$  micron
- **Fiber Concentration / Volume Density:**

$$\rho_s = 3 \times 10^6 \pm 0.5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

- **Volume fraction (surface density):**

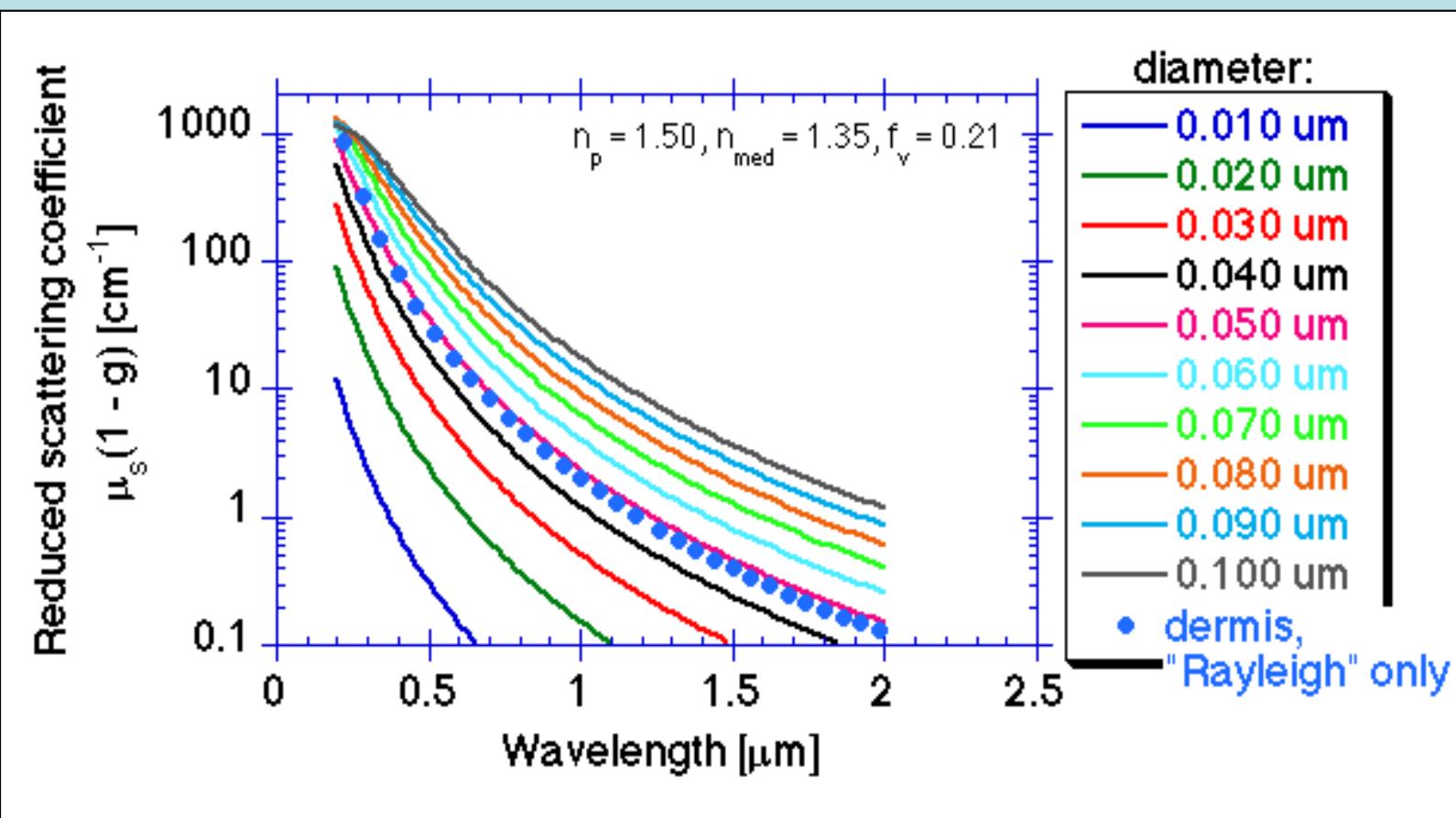
$$f_v = \pi a^2 / [1 \text{ cm}] \rho_s = 0.21 \pm 0.1$$

$n_{\text{med}} = 1.35$  (dermal ground substrate),

$n_{\text{fiber}} = 1.5$  (collagen)

## Biological Example: Skin/ Collagen (2)

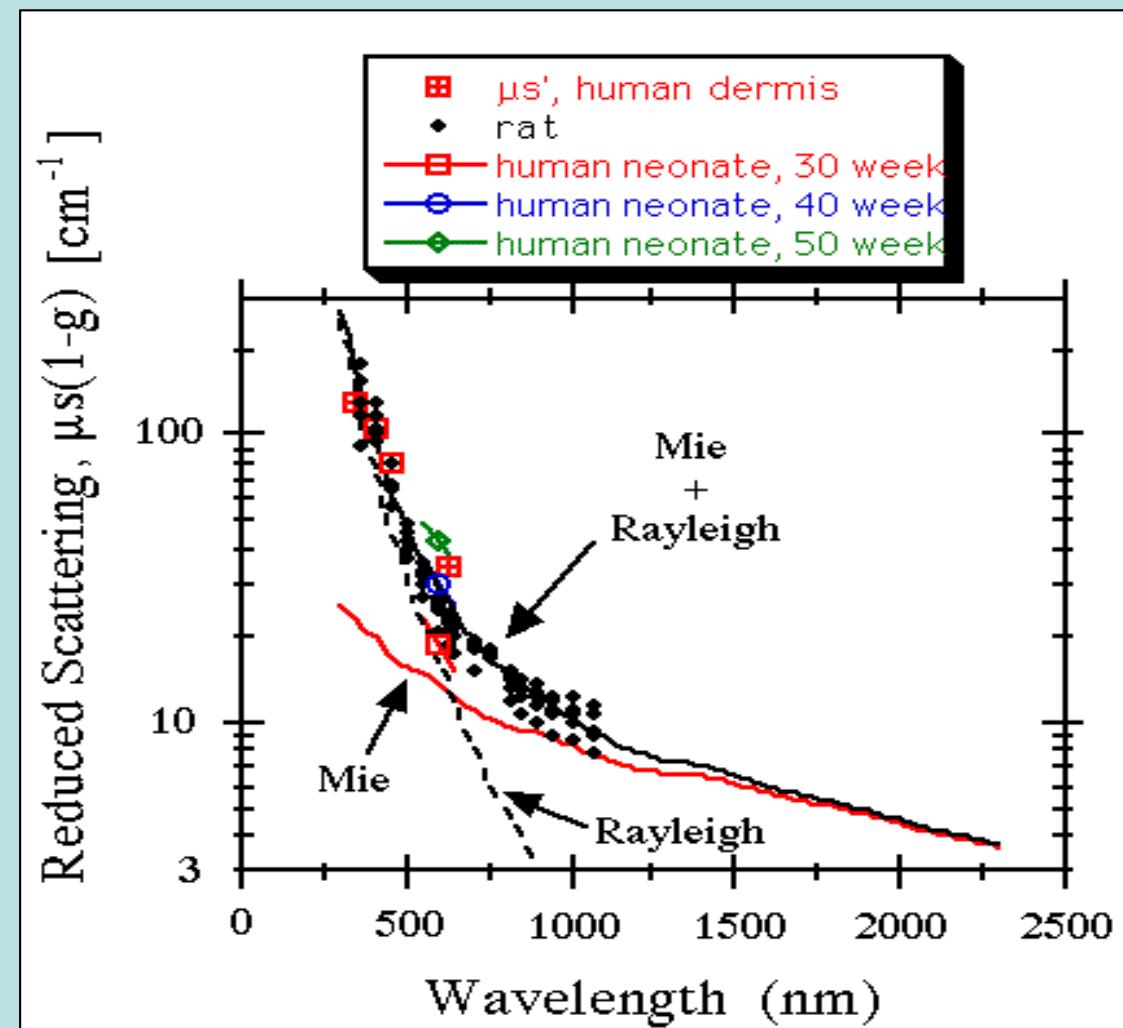
Reduced Scattering coefficient for different cylinder diameters.  
Ultrastructure of collagen fibrils:  $\rightarrow$  50 nm (range 10 – 100 nm)



## Biological Example: Skin/ Collagen (3)

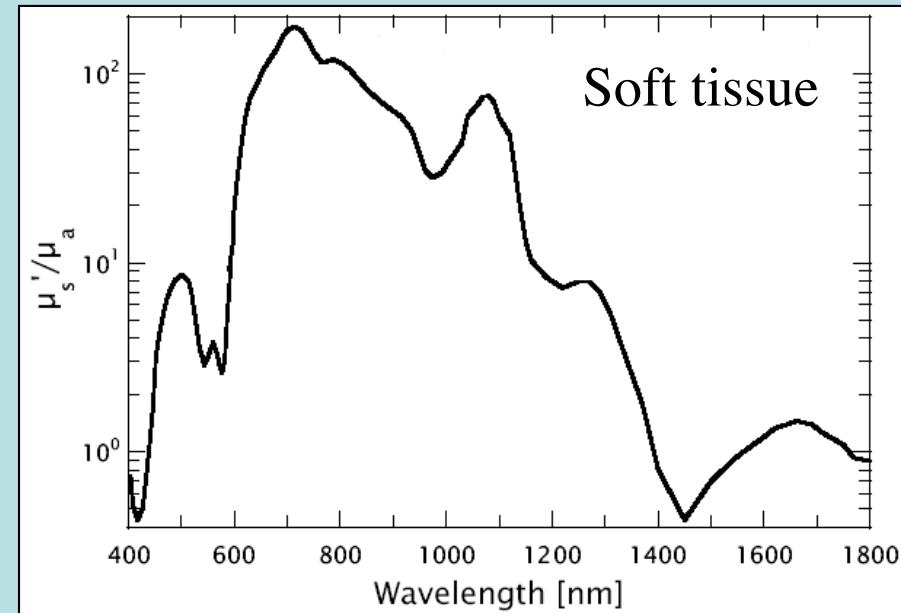
Reduced scattering coefficient:  
experimental (symbols)  
and theoretical values (lines)  
assuming:

- (i) Rayleigh (black dotted line;  $n_p = 1.50$ ,  $n_{med} = 1.35$ ,  $fv = 0.21$ , 50 nm spheres)
- (ii) Mie (red line;  $n_p = 1.46$ ,  $n_{med} = 1.35$ ,  $fv = 0.21$ , collagen fibers:  $2.8 \mu\text{m}$ )
- (iii) Mie & Rayleigh (black line)



## Importance of the relative magnitudes of the absorption and reduced scattering coefficients

**Modeling** of light transport in tissues is often governed by the relative magnitudes of optical absorption and scattering



$\mu_a \gg \mu_s'$  : Lambert-Beer Law ( $\lambda \leq 300$  nm;  $\lambda \geq 2000$  nm)

$\mu_s' \gg \mu_a$  : Diffusion Approximation (600 nm  $\sim$  1000 nm)

$\mu_s' \sim \mu_a$  : Monte Carlo simulations  
(300 nm  $\sim$  600 nm; 1000 nm  $\sim$  2000 nm)